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AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ROLE OF SELF-ESTEEM
IN ADOLESCENT LEISURE BEHAVIOR

by

DONALD S. WYLLIE

(C)

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies and Research, for acceptance, a thesis entitled, *An Investigation of the Role of Self-esteem in Adolescent Leisure Behavior*, submitted by Donald S. Wyllie in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Geography.

ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the effects of individual self-esteem on adolescent leisure behavior. It attempts to combine the geographer's interest in behavior in space with the planner's interest in catering to the post-industrial leisure society. Many studies in both areas have produced less than satisfactory results due mainly to the misconceptualization of the problems. Geographers have concentrated on perception and attitudes to attempt to explain spatial behavior without fully considering the difficulties of measurement and the continuing debate on these subjects within social psychology. Planners have concentrated on the provision of facilities for active recreation to the virtual exclusion of other leisure forms. Meanwhile social psychologists now appear to agree that individual self-esteem may be the most important determinant of environmental perception. Level of self-esteem also appears to affect decision-making ability which is, perhaps, one of the more important abilities required of members of the, so called, leisure society.

A non-random sample of 391 grade 11 and 12 Edmonton high school students provided the data base for this exploratory study. Self-esteem was measured using a combination of the five Guttman scales provided in the Rosenberg Self-Esteem measure. Information was also gathered on various background sociometric variables and on free-time, leisure and recreation interests. Statistical testing was limited by the non-random sample and analysis was carried out by examining trends

across the four esteem categories which were established.

Results in other studies which showed that various background variables, mainly quality of home life, affected level of esteem were duplicated in this study. Socioeconomic status was again shown to be only weakly related to level of self-esteem. Differences in self-esteem were found to have a marked effect on the use of space. High esteem individuals tended to travel farther and participate in riskier activities than the low esteem group who preferred urban locations and more solitary activities. High and low esteem groups were also contrasted in their friendship patterns and participation in club or group activities. Ability to utilize discretionary time was greatly influenced by level of esteem with the lower esteem groups having significantly greater difficulties than the high esteem groups in making decisions. The low esteem groups also felt that many activities were merely for killing time.

The implications of this study for geographic research and for planning are considerable. First, self-esteem appears to be easier to measure than perception and attitudes and links more directly with behavior. Secondly, differences in self-esteem do affect the use of space, decision making ability and the types of environments preferred by individuals. These various areas have been the focus of continuing attention by geographers for some time. In planning the use of self-esteem would appear to provide improved insights into individual needs and the types of facilities required in the future. Self-esteem may have greater use in social planning by allowing the identification of the ways in which society may be changed by social programs.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Literature Review	2
Geography and Planning	2
Leisure as Activity	6
Leisure as a State of Mind	11
Personality	14
Neurophysiological Variations	15
Environmental Interactions	17
Modes of Analysis and Construction	20
Summary	21
Self-Esteem	22
Antecedents of Self-Esteem	26
The Consequences of Self-Esteem	32
The Specific Problem	36
Hypotheses	39
II. METHODOLOGY	40
Introduction	40
Sampling Frame	40
Questionnaire Design	42
Self-Esteem Measurement	42
Free Time Activities	43
Attitudes to Free Time	44
Needs	46
Background Information	47
Questionnaire Layout and Administration	49
Pre-Testing	50
Analysis	51
Limitations of the Study	52

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
III ANALYSIS AND RESULTS	53
The Sample	53
Background Variables	55
Self-Esteem and Leisure	64
Decision Making	64
Society's Role in Leisure Planning	67
Number of Friends	70
Membership of Clubs	70
Attitudes to Self and Free Time Activity	72
Free Time, Leisure and Recreation Activities	81
Males	82
Females	87
Needs	93
IV SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	103
Summary of Results	103
Hypothesis 1.	103
Hypothesis 2.	103
Hypothesis 3.	104
Hypothesis 4.	104
Other Results	104
Implications of the Research	105
Implications for Geography	105
Implications for Planning	107
Conclusion	108
BIBLIOGRAPHY	110
APPENDICES: APPENDIX A: SELF ESTEEM MEASUREMENT	117
APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE	122

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Use of Free Time in Britain	9
2 Correlations between Ratings of 'Leisure Time Activities and Satisfactions' in Childhood and Psychological Health Index in Adulthood	30
3 Significant Correlations between Items from the 'Leisure Time Activities and Satisfactions' Q-Sort in Childhood and the Psychological Health Index in Adulthood	31
4 Adolescent Preoccupations, Interests and Activities	35
5 Distribution of Respondents among Schools	55
6 Self-Esteem and Socio-Economic Status	56
7 Problems with Fathers	57
8 Problems with Mothers	58
9 Parental Education	59
10 Frequency of Parental Praise	60
11 Relationships between Firth Order, Family Size and Self-Esteem	61
12 Sources of Satisfaction at Home	62
13 Use of an Extra Hour at School	62
14 Post-School Decisions	63
15 Use of Car	64
16 Difficulties with Free Time	65
17 Percentage of Free-Time Activities Merely for Killing Time	66
18 Self-Defintion Through Work or Leisure	67
19 Society's Role in Leisure Planning	68
20 Free Time Activities Society Should Encourage	69

Table	Page
21 Number of Friends	71
22 Club Membership	72
23 Distribution of Those who Distinguish between Free Time and Leisure	81
24 Most Important Free Time Interests for the Total Sample .	83
25 Male Free Time Interests	84
26 Male Leisure Interests	85
27 Male Recreation Interests	86
28 Female Free Time Interests	88
29 Female Leisure Interests	89
30 Female Recreation Interests	90
31 Male and Female Free Time Interests	92
32 Male and Female Leisure Interests	92
33 Importance of Needs, Total Sample	93
34 Self-Esteem and Rank Ordering of Needs	94
35 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Affiliation	98
36 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Succorance	98
37 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Achievement	99
38 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Activity	99
39 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Autonomy	100
40 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Nurturance	100
41 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Sentience	101

Table	Page
42 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Order	101
43 Activities Associated with High and Low Need for Understanding	102

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE	Page
1 Map Showing Location of Schools and Respondents Homes . . .	54
2 Semantic Differential Rating of Self	74
3 Semantic Differential Rating of Ideal-Self	75
4 Semantic Differential Rating of Free Time	76
5 Semantic Differential Rating of Leisure (add data) . . .	77
6 Semantic Differential Rating of Recreation	78
7 Semantic Differential Rating of Leisure (only those who distinguish between free time and leisure)	79

"To be able to fill leisure time intelligently is
the last product of civilization."

Arnold Toynbee

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The emergence of a post industrial leisure society (Burton, 1976) has caused planning for leisure to become an increasingly important part of the planning effort in western society. The geographer's role in planning is also changing through the use of concepts borrowed from social psychology. Results from this collaboration have often been unsatisfactory due to the underestimation of difficulties of measurement and ignorance of the continuing debates within social psychology concerning concepts such as attitudes and perception. Social psychologists are now agreed that individual self-esteem is a crucial factor in determining environmental perception and this has been virtually ignored by other disciplines.

Level of self-esteem also appears to effect decision making ability and this is, perhaps, one of the most important abilities required by members of the, so called, leisure society. Self-esteem may also determine the activities and interests desired during free time. For these reasons the study of the effects of self-esteem on behavior are thought to be a suitable topic of research for a geographer. Although many examples could have been chosen to illustrate the geographic importance of self-esteem, adolescents and leisure are chosen because of their relevance to planning in general and social problems in Edmonton in particular.

Adolescents are studied for they are, like the aged, an

underprivileged group in terms of leisure planning. This period in the life cycle is a time of maximum stress due to evolving interpersonal relationships, school leaving, career decisions and changing family relationships. Discretionary time should provide opportunities to find satisfactory solutions or, at least, palliatives for these stresses. Inability to utilize discretionary time creates problems, not only for the individual but often for society as well. One example of inadequacies in planning for leisure, as distinct from recreation, is illustrated by the increasing problems caused by adolescents in shopping malls in Edmonton (Adams, 1978). It is not known if these groups are in some way deviant or whether lack of planning of facilities cause them to use what seem to them to be the best alternatives meeting their needs. Adolescents are also studied because the young are the section of society who will have to live longest with the results of planning policy.

This thesis is a foray into 'terra incognita' and is an attempt to combine geography, planning, psychology and leisure into an exploratory study. It is therefore necessary to review literature from these four areas to illustrate the interrelationships of these subjects and their relevance to geography.

Literature Review

Geography and Planning

The links between geography and planning started in the 1930s and since then the relationship has been continuously changing. Three main phases can be identified and it is useful to examine these to explain how this study fits with the changing geographic philosophy.

Until the 1950s geographers were mainly involved with the data collection and land use survey phase of the planning process. Geographers were divorced from policy decisions and the implementation of solutions to problems highlighted by the surveys. During this period planners began to see that geographers were making a decreasing contribution to the planning process and that they required a radical change of approach.

The required change became apparent during the early 1960s when a major schism developed in geography. On one side there remained the regional, mainly descriptive, approach exemplified by data collection and land use surveys. The newer approach attempted to turn geography into an, "empirical science capable of generating statistically definable concepts of use to those engaged in physical planning" (Lever, 1974). Much of the new approach reduced to building models which attempted to identify and explain regularities in human behavior. Geographers contributed five concepts--those of distance, networks, point patterns, surfaces and dynamic processes--which combined have provided a substantial basis for physical planning. The concepts have utility because individuals function in a world in which residence, employment, education, recreation and goods and services are spatially separated.

The planner intervenes in this process of distribution for four reasons--to ensure that incompatible land uses are spatially separated, to regulate flows of goods and people between complementary functions, to decide on the scale of each set of functions such as transport and recreation which are not developed through the usual market process (Lever, 1974).

Unfortunately the geographic concepts are normative and were applied in a mechanistic manner taking little cognisance of the ways in which individuals really behave. Fortunately a parallel development in

geography has gone part way to providing an understanding of individual behavior.

Kirk (1952, 1963) was one of the first geographers to examine in any detail the belief that individuals behave in a personal environment, modified by perceptual filters, which is very different from the reality of their environment. The differences in the ways in which individuals view the same stimulus are also of interest to planners and Lynch's (1960) effort to study the visual image of the city is an early example. However, much of the early work of geographers was directed toward the perception of and attitudes to the natural landscape. Perception and attitude studies spread like a rash through geography, often with unfortunate results.

The first of the problems was that the majority of studies failed to discuss the social psychological underpinnings of perception and attitudes. If they had it would quickly have become apparent that social psychologists were not in agreement on the relationship between perception or attitudes and behavior. It would also have been apparent that the measurement of perception and attitudes was difficult and not amenable to the situations found in many geographic studies. A third deficiency is, perhaps, only revealed with hindsight and this concerns the aspects of personality chosen for study by geographers. Possibly geographers were initially misled by early talk of perceptual filters, images, or mental maps into believing that perception or perception and attitudes were the key factors determining behavior. Developments in social psychology appear to suggest that perception, as measured by a majority of geographers, plays only a part in the determination of individual behavior.

Ideally, in an effort to understand behavior, total personality should be studied because all aspects combine to determine behavior. However, this is not yet possible with present measuring instruments due to the complexity of personality. Therefore it is necessary to choose the aspect of personality having greatest utility for the study being undertaken. There are now reasons to believe that other areas of personality will have greater utility for geographers and planners than perception or attitudes as previously conceptualized.

The discussion thus far has focussed on physical planning and the perception of the built or natural environment. However, social planning is assuming increasing importance in the overall planning effort. Geographers have long been involved in the social aspects of urban and rural planning and much of the geographic input depended upon social differentiation varying spatially. Increasingly, social area differentiation is breaking down in capitalist countries in cities such as Edmonton and also in socialist countries (Pahl, 1970). Classification schemes based on socio-economic status, or social class will lose utility as populations become more socially homogenous. Despite the cry for relevance in geography geographers have been slow to explore and exploit the offerings of social psychology. With increasing social homogeneity a psychological basis for research and social planning may have greatest utility in the near future. Unfortunately there is as yet little evidence to support this argument and much of the social psychological research with a spatial connotation focusses on extreme conditions. Some examples will give an indication of research undertaken which shows that personality varies spatially.

At the international level of analysis Iwawaki et al., (1977),

following the work of Lynn (1971) showed that there are marked differences in personality among school children and university students in England and Japan. The data did not clearly show whether the source of the differences was genetic or socio-environmental, though both sources were involved. Cattell and Scheier (1961) in an earlier study showed that Japan is a high anxiety country while the United Kingdom and the United States are low anxiety countries. Zavalloni (1973) examined French and American students and found that subjective culture effected their self-concepts. Subjective culture was defined as the cultural group's characteristic way of perceiving its environment. At the urban scale of analysis Irving (1975), the only geographer in this group of researchers, using Eysenck's (1958) Personality Inventory found that the various personality categories were spatially distributed in the city of Hull, England.

Clearly, these few examples illustrate, despite their disparity, that personality types are spatially distributed. What is not clear is whether or not personality furthers geographic research or understanding. Before examining personality in detail the following section discusses leisure and recreation. Although many topics could be chosen to study the effects of personality, leisure is chosen because of its growing importance in western society.

Leisure as Activity

It is a widespread belief that western society is evolving from industrial through post-industrial to become a leisure society. The emergence of mass leisure is a combination of urbanization, reducing hours of work, increasing discretionary time and increasing affluence. Several authors supply supporting evidence from many countries all

showing, in various forms, the trend to mass leisure (Patmore, 1970; Dumazedier, 1974; Kando, 1975; Simmons, 1975; Schliewen, 1977). At this point consensus ends for there is little agreement as to what life in a leisure society means to the individual.

Two differing views of leisure are responsible for this difficulty. The first, and most prevalent view, is that leisure is a term synonymous with recreation, or free time, or time left after the essentials of life are taken care of. This, unfortunately, often leads to unproductive and misdirected discussion because it is extremely difficult to decide upon the differences between time for essentials such as work and time which is not work. With increasing levels of unemployment in western society this distinction becomes even more misleading (Brightbill, 1960; Parker, 1971; Cheek and Burch, 1976; Haworth and Smith, 1976).

Equating leisure and recreation has led to a second, more important, difficulty concerning the provision of facilities. Often, as Driver and Tocher (1974) point out, definitional problems have led recreation planners to view recreation as participation in activities. This view has caused research to be directed toward identifying activity patterns in society. Increasing criticism is now being directed toward these views on leisure and recreation (Brown et al., 1973; Gold, 1973; Gray and Pelegrino, 1973; Veal, 1973; Cheek et al., 1976).

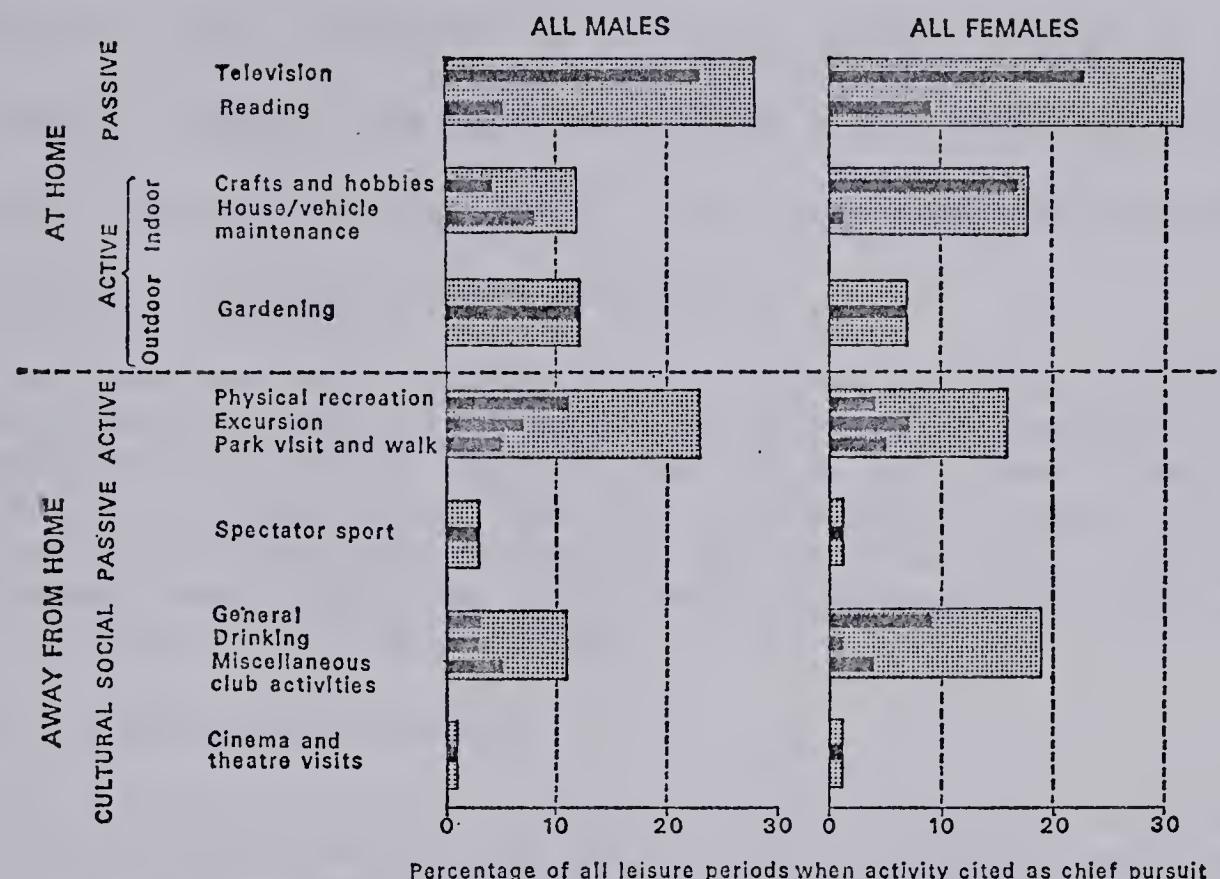
The substance of the criticism contends that the activity approach is mere fact gathering and does little to further understanding of what people would like to do. In an attempt to redress the balance Driver and Tocher (1974) suggest that it is better to view recreation not as activity, but as a psycho-physiological experience.

In other words it is not the activity which should be studied but instead the needs and desires the activity satisfies. The swing to a more psychological approach produced a large number of surveys focusing on attitudes, satisfactions and needs. Again this generated criticism suggesting that many studies were misconceptualized and failed to assist recreational management's decision making (Heberlein, 1973).

The point, which appears to have been missed, is that although recreation is increasingly studied from a psychological viewpoint the application is still centered upon the provision of activity based facilities. Although recreation planners will agree that passive pastimes such as reading or hobbies can be classed as recreation they are not integrated into planning practice because they are non active. The work of Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) shows that few of the free time activities of young people occur in places provided for recreation because the latter were orientated to activity. Studies of other age groups produce similar findings in Canada, the United States and France (Schliewen, 1977; Cheek and Burch, 1976; Dumazedier, 1974). A breakdown of free time usage in Britain is shown in Table I and is generally similar to findings in other western countries. Although not unimportant, active recreation occupies a relatively small percentage of free time in comparison to amounts devoted to other uses.

A further reason for not equating leisure and recreation is developed by Kaplan (1975) who suggests that historically the synonymous use of leisure and recreation was acceptable in work orientated industrial society. In such a society the chief purpose of recreation is to enhance the capacity of the individual for work. Since the

TABLE 1
Use of Free Time (Patmore, 1972;31)



nineteenth century a prevalent approach to leisure has been to study it in terms of its relationship to peoples working lives and the functioning of the economy (Roberts, 1970). The relationship changes as work becomes less central in life and recreation for work may no longer be the main object of free time. A recent study by Burstein et al., (1975) shows that in Canada work is not of central importance for a growing percentage of the labour force. For people who do not work due to age or unemployment the failure to distinguish between recreation and leisure becomes even more significant when facilities are still planned as recreation for work.

A final problem exists due to the political role in recreation planning of society. McCormack (1971) makes a crucial differentiation between leisure and recreation by stating that, "Recreation is a system

of social control and like all systems of social control, it is to some degree manipulative, coercive and indoctrinating. Leisure it is not." (McCormack, 1971). In most societies the population is seen to have 'recreation' needs, therefore the political leaders attempt to satisfy these needs. However, the needs are seldom really those expressed by the people and only those activities which are 'good' for the people are supplied. As Emmett (1976) points out,

When towns had empty running tracks, money was made available to make them more attractive by providing changing rooms and like amenities and efforts made to coax people onto them without charging entrance fees. When towns have empty cinemas there is no rush to make them more attractive and to coax people to go out with friends, make themselves warm, comfortable and entertained, without an entrance fee (Emmett, 1976).

If sampling showed that people,

wanted bingo, old films on television, to get drunk, smoke pot or watch soccer rather than play it, our "servants" would not contentedly provide more pot parlours, gin parlours, comedy programs and seats in soccer grounds (Emmett, 1976).

A majority of 'needs' are met in the form of impressive facilities which are often suitable for holding international athletic competitions.

Martin (1969) epitomises the political role as the, "Keep them busy. Keep them entertained. Keep them distracted. Give them bread and circuses." syndrome.

This brief review has shown that much of the leisure planning in western society is orientated toward activity, usually outdoor and is politically motivated. Problems are caused because the theories guiding recreation planners are orientated toward an industrial, work-orientated society which has now been largely superseded. For increasing numbers the 'leisure' society has produced too much free time and aspirations which cannot be met by active recreation alone. If planning

is to be changed to properly fulfil its role for society then recreation, free time and leisure have to be reconceptualized.

Leisure as a State of Mind

The preceding section has briefly outlined some of the institutional problems facing a leisure society. However, leisure has been discussed in terms of what it is not. An attempt to define leisure is therefore necessary and definition is yet another problem facing a leisure society. The word leisure derives from the Latin word 'licere,' to permit, to let. In the recent past this was equated with liberation from work. However, as was shown, changes in society preclude increasing numbers from work and defining leisure in this way no longer has currency. Dumazedier (1967) distinguished three functions for leisure, those of relaxation, diversion and development of personality. Farina (1972) concentrating on development of personality considers that leisure furthers self-actualization which is suggested as the goal of leisure. Self-actualization can be visualized as the pinnacle of a hierarchy of needs which is achieved when an individual is at last capable of becoming everything of which he is capable. Unfortunately, Wylie (1961, 1974) criticises self-actualization, despite its intuitive appeal, on the grounds that it is a nebulous concept, very difficult to measure and has not led to enlightening research in psychology.

Despite the criticism Farina's view represents a considerable change in emphasis from the time in the recent past when work was considered to be the main source of success in life and personal fulfilment (Parker, 1971). Psychologists have long been in agreement that

work is an important source of life satisfactions and a determinant of mental health (de Grazia, 1962; Martin, 1967; Oberle, 1972). However, increasing amounts of free time will reduce the work time available to procure these psychological benefits. The problem with increasing free time is that a majority of people in society are socialized to believe that work is beneficial and that leisure equates with idleness. Problems are therefore created for the young, the retired and the unemployed because of this perceptual bias (Parker, 1971). Even those who work have increasing problems due to the decreasing ability of work to provide satisfaction (Burstein, et al., 1975).

Although viewing leisure as a source of mental well being is a crucial step in more fully understanding the role of leisure it has done little to enhance the leisure experience. Much of the research arising from this altered view has attempted to understand the links between needs and activities (O'Connor, 1971; Howard, 1974). Unfortunately present conceptualizations of leisure and needs result in research which shows that many activities satisfy several needs. For example, in a study by Tinsley et al., (1977) the need for affiliation was met by television viewing, reading, bicycling, plays and drinking. But this same set of activities also met needs for sex, catharsis, independence, understanding and getting along with others. Apart from this difficulty the problem with research of this type is that leisure is still conceptualized in terms of identifiable activities which meet a number of needs.

The essential element missing in these conceptualizations of leisure underlying these and other studies is freedom. Freedom, in relation to leisure or free time, is a concept with various connotations

in western society. In industrial society free time was provided for recuperation or recreation and was a block of time provided for this purpose (Parker, 1971). As society developed the need for 'recreation for work' became less pressing and free time became a period without any commitment. A notion developed that freedom 'from' would be conducive to freedom 'for' or 'to' (Lee, 1971) and this type of thinking is typified by Farina (1977) who, as previously discussed, suggested that freedom allowed one to become everything that one is capable of becoming. Unfortunately, members of western society appear to see unbounded freedom as chaotic and frightening unlike members of eastern society who, by meditation and socialization, can utilize freedom for their own benefit. Educational leaders in North America, seeing the problems of freedom, recommended that freedom should be structured by setting limits. But as Lee (1971) asserts,

the individual is [not] frightened by unbounded freedom but rather that the lack of structure leaves him inert. What incites the American individual to an answering engagement in the situation is definiteness, caliber, within the situation; a strong framework, 'gut.' Unstructured freedom, whether fenced in or not, is still mamby pamby (Lee, 1971).

Therefore to avoid the inertia invoked by the formlessness of freedom, "Leisure has to be filled with named games, organized recreation, labelled hobbies [and] planned activities." (Lee, 1971).

This type of leisure which emphasises choice among activities does not, in Lee's view, "engender creativity, originality and spontaneity." Leisure should be a sphere of independent activity to discover, create and to reinforce our individuality (Wright Mills, 1971). To do this requires privacy; privacy to be alone and also privacy to avoid the spurious leisure purveyed by commercial producers.

To achieve this type of leisure requires self reliance, decision making ability and discrimination. These qualities, which should be required in the work environment perhaps explain why work was a source of mental well being. Now, these qualities have to be used and developed to further a leisure career. Increasingly in modern society this may be the only career many individuals ever have. To further a leisure career leisure planners must understand that, just as in the work environment, individuals have differing personalities and abilities which in turn affects development through leisure.

This brief review has emphasised a fundamental distinction between recreation and leisure. Recreation is viewed as essentially recreation for work, often with underlying political aims and is a means of filling blocks of free time. In contrast, leisure is conceptualized as a sphere of independent activity where one is free to discover, create and reinforce ones individuality. Viewed in these terms the leisure 'boom' and problems with leisure have not actually occurred. Most western societies are still at the stage of overcoming problems caused by the void of free time. However, to move toward a leisure society does require planning and planning which takes into account varying personalities and thus abilities to leisure. The following section therefore examines personality and focusses on one aspect which may be an important contributor to the ability to leisure.

Personality

Like leisure personality is an extremely nebulous concept, difficult to explain and measure. A brief overview is given here to

illustrate why only one aspect of personality is studied in this thesis. For the level of explanation required here personality can be construed as the pattern occurring in the ways an individual perceives, thinks and acts. There appears to be agreement that there are three main sources of differences in personality. These are neurophysiological variations, environmental effects, and differences in creative, constructive and analytical processes. The following brief description is based largely on the work of Heise (1972).

Neurophysiological Variations

Neurophysiological variations or traits are considered here as mainly biologically determined although all traits are also, to a certain extent, environmentally influenced. Of the three sources of difference in personality traits are the most effected by genetics. Four traits are identified:

1. Intelligence. Intelligence is related to the ability to review familiar facts from different perspectives and to adapt old understandings to new circumstances. Although general intelligence is a useful parameter, four subdivisions are often used:
 - (i) verbal; the ability to manipulate word symbols and semantic meaning;
 - (ii) numerical; facility with numbers and quantitative relationships;
 - (iii) spatial; the ability to hold visual images in mind and transform them;
 - (iv) reasoning; the capacity to grasp rules and their inter-relationships.

Intelligence has a heritability of about 80 percent on a scale

where 100 represents total genetic inheritance and zero represents an environmentally determined trait.

2. Introversion-Extroversion. Basic differences are thought to be due to how much the brain inhibits perceptions and sensations. Introverts are more sensitive to sensations than extroverts and are inclined to avoid stimulation and excitement. Extroverts are less sensitive to stimulation and therefore can tolerate or even actually seek intense stimulation. Differences in sociability are one obvious manifestation of this trait. Also introverts more readily display guilt, persistence, and reliability than extroverts who react less to stress and tend to repress problems. Heritability is around 50 percent.
3. Emotionality. Individuals are defined as emotional if they are often annoyed, fearful, embarrassed in social situations, deprecate themselves and have little self confidence. They also tend to be reclusive and when in social situations are submissive to immediate authority and social standards. High emotionality is a feature of neuroticism and other behavior disorders such as criminality. Heritability is around 50 percent.
4. Meaning Disturbances. An extreme form is schizophrenia which results in bizarre delusion and behavior and inability to construct comprehensible ordering of the environment. Most people experience similar states occasionally due to stress, inexperience and unfamiliar situations (Ross, 1974). At one time schizophrenia was thought to be the result of environmental effects but now heritability is thought to play an important part.

Environmental Interactions

Since humans display few instinctual patterns most ways of acting and responding toward specific social or physical objects are learned. This aspect of personality will be dependent upon the socio-cultural background of the individual. Therefore, although every individual is unique there are identifiable regularities produced by the socio-cultural milieu.

1. Needs and Interests. Satisfactions arise from events that link individuals to specific objects or persons such as eating, hobbies, work, theater or sexual intercourse. Although the sources of satisfaction or pleasure are multitudinous, satisfaction is maximized when anticipations are almost, but not perfectly, confirmed by reality. There are two main variations among individuals seeking and experiencing pleasure. These are variations in the mode of stimulation and within any mode there is variation because pleasure is obtainable from different objects. Among some of the sources of satisfaction that have been researched are sexual activity, aggression, aesthetic understanding and achieving. Much effort has been devoted to defining a list of basic modes of receiving pleasure. But practically any verb specifies a need and the list rapidly becomes unwieldy. Often research of individual needs reveals such variations with no single overriding dimension that interpretation is impossible.

One approach attempts to simplify the number of needs studied by eliminating those common to a majority of society. Recently research has concentrated on relatively few needs with high variability in middle class populations. The problem of unwieldy

numbers of needs is further complicated by the fact that needs can be attached to a variety of objects. These attachments also constitute a significant aspect of personality. People seek to achieve with respect to different goals, to relax with different kinds of people and differ in the selection of topics they find most interesting. So each different need or mode of satisfaction not only has intensity but also a directionality in the sense of a preferred object or goal.

Particular interests or needs do not develop without experience with a correlated act. Thus one course of motivational differences among people must be due to differences in what they have not experienced. Differences among people from differing cultures and subcultures may be largely attributed to this factor, since groups differ in the acts and objects they make available to their members.

2. Cognitions and Attitudes. People do not perceive and understand their world in a completely objective way. They are always selecting from a multitude of possible impressions in order to register events that are most understandable in terms of familiar categories and attitudes. Cognitions therefore, are all the mental operations involved in receiving, storing and processing information including sensory perception, memory, thinking and learning (Arnheim, 1969). Many cognitions and attitudes towards a person's environment are a function of the intrinsic nature of reality and also the accumulated interpretations embedded in the culture a person has learned. As there are more cognitive categories in complex civilizations than a person can possibly comprehend, an individual's unique career in learning segments of the culture defines the individual's under-

standing of the world.

Attitudes are intimately involved with cognitions and are the focus of continuing debate in psychology. Definitions vary, but there is general agreement that a person's attitude toward some object constitutes a predisposition on his part to respond to the object in a consistent manner (Fishbein and Ajzen, 1974). Much of the controversy has been generated by the frequent lack of relationship between measured attitudes and subsequent behavior. There is growing evidence to show that this is due to conceptualizing attitude unidimensionally. Now it is widely recognized that attitudes comprise cognitive, affective and action components (Mervielde, 1977).

3. Self Concepts. Of all the topics a person may learn and feel about, 'self' is the most significant. The conceptions and attitudes one has toward the self are a component in the definition of every personal situation and are the most ubiquitous factors in a person's emotions and actions. Self concepts constitute an important part of personality due to their high degree of social determination. This aspect of personality will be discussed in more detail later.
4. Dominance. One important difference among individuals in the way in which they relate to environment is in their levels of dominance and assertiveness. Assertiveness appears to be a function of several psychological factors--a person's preferred level of control, the discrepancy between the preferred level and the level

experienced in a situation and the impression of the importance of the people and objects in the situation. Assertive or dominating behavior occurs when the individual prefers a high level of control, when the actual level is lower and when the available persons in the situation are thought to be 'worth' acting upon. Assertive-dominant behavior is very situation dependent because the individual's mastery depends upon the significance of the situation. This behavior is largely a function of self-attitudes and attitudes toward others.

Modes of Analysis and Construction

The final domain of personality involves differences among people in their creative, constructive processes and in the ways they relate idea to idea to form larger wholes. This occurs perceptually and with respect to social and moral interpretations of events. Although this area of personality has not received much attention it would appear to be important in understanding environmental perception. Individuals differ in their ability to analyze units apart from their surroundings (field independence) as opposed to incorporating objects and their backgrounds into interdependent wholes (field dependence). Hundleby et al., (1965) suggest that the field independent person is not only analytic and accurate at the perceptual level but also is likely to display logicalness, unusual ability to concentrate, independent from social pressures and a complacent aloofness from others. This would appear to have an important bearing on environmental perception. Heritability is around 50 percent and could have been treated as a trait were it not for its relevance to the ability of individuals to

construct reality from their environment.

A different perspective on reality construction is provided by the notion that there are stages in cognitive and moral development. During the first stage a person tends to organize interests, feelings and actions around his or her own person. Activity is devoted largely to indulging and protecting the self. During the second stage the pre-eminent focus shifts to concern with ways of acting and outward appearances. Thoughts and actions come to be largely dedicated to maintaining and expressing rules and conventions. At the third level there is heightened concern with feelings, meditations and actions reflecting a dominant altruistic concern for the welfare of others and their freedom to act out their independent natures.

What a person sees, thinks, feels and does is mainly determined by the adoption of these stages, since each stage provides a kind of paradigm for constructing interpretations of events and for developing expectations and plans (Kohlberg and Kramer, 1969).

Summary

From this brief review of personality it can be seen that all aspects play a part in determining behavior. However, due to the multi-dimensional nature of personality, there are practical difficulties in devising a global measure. Therefore efforts have concentrated on various aspects dependent upon the purpose of the research.

Most prevalent in recreation research have been attitude studies whose deficiencies were mentioned earlier. Recently, increasing attention has been given to the study of needs. Although psychologists have long suggested that behavior is a function of needs the form

of the function is less well understood (Allport, 1955; Maslow, 1954; Murray, 1938; Rogers, 1951). The needs studied are usually conceptualized in terms of Murray's (1938) press variables, "The press of an object is what it can do to the subject or for the subject, the power that it has to effect the well being of the subject in one way or another." (Murray, 1938, p. 121). Although several recent studies attempt to relate leisure activities to needs they all suffer from the previously mentioned problem that many needs can be satisfied by the same activity (Howard, 1974; Neulinger, 1974; O'Connor, 1970; Tinsley et al., 1977). There also seems to be some confusion about what constitutes a need. For example, Tinsley et al., (1977) includes self-esteem among the needs studied contrary to the usual conception of self-esteem as an attitude.

Self-concepts have often been studied in leisure research because self-actualization or self-fulfillment may be seen as the goal of leisure (Farina, 1972). However, Wylie (1961, 1974) makes the point that characteristics such as self-actualization are too nebulous and have not led to enlightening research in psychology. The Modes of Analysis and Construction area of personality, which appear to be important in their effect on environmental perception, have received little attention and suffer from a similar criticism. On the other hand, self-concepts, excluding self-actualization, are extremely important in social psychology but have received little attention from those outside the discipline.

Self-Esteem

The lack of interest by non-psychologists is not surprising for

any review of self-concepts is pessimistic and great emphasis is given to the continuing debate within the discipline. Much criticism is also made of the quality of theorizing, research design and lack of methodological rigour in self-concept studies (Wylie, 1961, 1974; Wells and Marwell, 1976). In spite of this discouragement self-concepts and in particular self-esteem, are seen to be very necessary for contemporary social-psychological thought.

A basic desire of humans is to know who they are. Identity is important, for the way a person perceives himself influences both what he chooses to do and what he expects from life. Closely allied to identity is self-evaluation and how much a person should value himself. A third component is the conflict between self and society and the problem of maintaining integrity. These three aspects of understanding the self have a long history and led to the development of what can be called the self-concept in psychology (Gergen, 1971).

Although there are many meanings of the term 'self,' Wells and Marwell (1976) see that the common element of the phenomena involves some process of reflexive activity. This is activity where the agent and the object of the behavior are the same person. The self is also seen as a hypothetical construct and is not directly observable. These two ways of conceptualizing the self are still the subject of much discussion for it is intuitively appealing to think of the self as an entity. Expressions such as, "It is not like me to behave like that," where "me" is viewed as a separate entity within the body effecting behavior are, perhaps, the source of dissent. Although debates still rage there is general agreement on the utility of the concept. It is useful on several counts, first, the self provides a

point of anchorage for the personal pattern of tendencies that are characteristic of each individual. Also, "people do not satisfy their needs or appetites in just any way but do so in terms defined by the self system." (Wells and Marwell, 1976, p. 43).

If self is defined as reflexive attitudes then there should be three components, for attitude to self is no different to attitudes to external objects. The three components are cognitive (the psychological content of the attitude), affective (a valuation attached to this content), and conative (behavioral responses to the attitude object) (Mervielde, 1977). Self-esteem is commonly identified with the affective component, which is usually asserted to be motivationally of primary importance (Wells and Marwell, 1976). The affective component consists of two processes, evaluation and affection. Self-evaluation is usually described as the ability of the individual to achieve valued ends and in eliciting social rewards. Diggory (1966) suggests that an individual may evaluate himself in the same terms that would be used to evaluate an external object. Self-affection relates to how a person feels about himself in that worthiness is not entirely determined by how good they think they are. Clinicians would term this as self-acceptance while psychoanalytic theorists would use the term self-love (Wells and Marwell, 1976).

Unfortunately four definitions of self-esteem exist including the one just outlined. Self-esteem has also been conceptualized as, (1) relations between attitudes and 'selves,' (2) psychological responses and (3) a personality function. The first definition views self-esteem as the discrepancy between an individual's perception and cognition of how they are (real self-concept) and how they would like

to be (ideal self-concept). The second definition deals, not with the discrepancy but with the feelings attached to it. Wells and Marwell (1976) suggest that these two definitions are functionally equivalent. When viewed as a personality function self-esteem is defined as a buffer which regulates the extent to which the self-system is maintained under conditions of stress. This definition has not been widely accepted (Wells and Marwell, 1976).

Apart from defining self-esteem there are further difficulties in deciding which level of self-esteem is optimal. Historically self-esteem has been linked to adjustment or effective personal or social functioning where either high, medium or low esteem is considered optimal. Most prevalent is the view that high self-esteem is hedonically preferred thus producing less anxiety, insecurity or compensatory defensiveness. High self-esteem individuals are also assumed to be more socially acceptable, active and successful and less prone to deviance than those with low self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965), Coopersmith (1967), most of the experimental studies and a majority of the sociological self-concept studies take this view (Wells and Marwell, 1976).

Proponents of the view that low self-esteem is optimal argue that self-esteem levels are a function of the defensive tactics individuals use. High self-esteem people are seen as using denial defences and to repress negative self-information. Although not seen as 'healthier,' low self-esteem people are described as being more flexible, more aware of personal shortcomings, less dependent upon personal facades and less authoritarian (Wells and Marwell, 1976).

Those who advocate a median position suggest that extremes of

self-esteem are seldom well adjusted and a median level is a balance between self-criticism and self-enhancement. There is as yet little empirical evidence to show clearly which level illustrates 'best' adjustment, just as there is little agreement as to the nature of 'best' psychological adjustment. In this study a medium-high level of self-esteem is considered to be optimal as will be shown later.

This review suggests that self-esteem is a reflexive attitude involving evaluation of worth. It can also be construed as the disparity between real self and an ideal self concept. Reflexive attitudes are easier to understand and, as will be shown later, to operationalize. The optimal level of esteem is a further choice to be made and a majority of psychologists believe that high self-esteem represents 'best' adjustment. However, as will be shown later, high self-esteem in adolescents may be the result of misperception. Having decided what constitutes self-esteem it is necessary to examine the antecedant situations that produce particular levels of esteem.

Antecedants of Self-Esteem

Knowledge of antecedant conditions are important because they provide information on how to change esteem and also to provide verification for the observed levels. Social class is often considered to be an important determinant of self-esteem on the grounds that greater wealth and education enable parents to produce 'better' children. There is little evidence to support this belief. Rosenberg (1965) and Coopersmith (1967) showed that social class was only weakly related to self-esteem although Wylie's (in press 1978) review shows more variable results (Bachman and O'Malley, 1977).

Coopersmith (1967) concluded that, in general, self-esteem is linked to parent child interaction in three ways.

Parents of children with high self-esteem are concerned and attentive toward their children, that they structure the worlds of their children along lines they believe to be proper and appropriate and that they permit relatively great freedom within structures they have established. (Coopersmith, 1967; p. 236)

In other words, parents of high self-esteem children behave consistently toward their offspring. They express acceptance of children through interest and concern and the parents are usually active, poised, relatively self-assured and on good terms with each other.

Well defined limits and structuring lead to high self-esteem because they provide a stable basis for evaluating the world outside the home. Also there are fewer ambiguities and inconsistencies in the parent child relationship. The child learns that transgression of the limits produce predictable reactions while the limits to behavior are sufficiently wide to allow self-expression. However, it is sometimes argued that rigidly defined limits produce high self-esteem at the expense of submissiveness, insensitivity and rigidity in offspring. Coopersmith (1967) found that the reverse situation exists in that high self-esteem individuals tend to be more independent and creative than those raised under more open permissive conditions.

Gergen (1971) showed that in an experimental situation self-rating is dependent upon appraisal from others and also that the more specific the appraisal the greater the effect on self-esteem. Effect of appraisal is also effected by the credibility and personalism of the appraiser. These findings support Coopersmith's (1967) results and show why immediate family has such an initial and lasting effect on self-esteem. Later work by Rosenberg (1973) also confirm these findings

by showing that the effects of appraisal are determined by the significance of the appraiser.

Other findings by Coopersmith (1967) show that mothers who work do not necessarily have detrimental effects on offspring. The significance of the mother's absence from home apparently depends upon how she and other members of the family view the absence. The study showed that mothers who enjoyed working tended to produce higher self-esteem in offspring together with a lower incidence of anxiety and psychosomatic symptoms. In summary, Coopersmith's findings on parental effects show that,

early external restrictions are likely to be associated with greater self knowledge and expressiveness as well as more assertive and enterprising actions. Of the several possible bases for this. . . . relationship we should first note that firm clear external limits are likely to result in clearer internal definitions of one's convictions, beliefs and attitudes. Self-attitudes are likely to reflect the clarity and incisiveness of the environmental attitudinal system as well as its content. (Coopersmith, 1967, p. 259).

The antecedant conditions producing self-esteem often result in it being linked to educational and occupational attainment. However a longitudinal study by Bachman and O'Malley (1977) showed that more complex linkages exist. In 1966, 1600 young men in tenth grade were tested for self-esteem and educational attainment. This was repeated in 1974 together with occupational status. Self-esteem showed a substantial increase and was correlated with educational attainment and occupational status. However, path analysis caused these simple findings to be modified.

(a) Self-esteem during high school has little or no direct causal impact on later educational and occupational attainment; self-esteem and attainment are correlated primarily because of shared prior causes including family background, ability and scholastic performance.

(b) Occupational status has a direct positive impact on self-esteem.

(c) Post high school educational attainment has no direct impact on self-esteem and only a trivial indirect impact via occupational status. Additional findings indicate that factors associated with educational success become less central to the self-evaluation of young men during late school and the years thereafter. (Bachman and O'Malley, 1977).

A second longitudinal study gives further support to these findings. Brooks and Elliot (1971) examined psychological adjustment at age thirty on the basis of leisure activities and satisfactions during childhood. The measures of activities included types of play equipment, number and kinds of playmates, time spent playing with parents and other adults, hobbies, trips, lessons, participation in social groups, etc. The children were studied directly and indirectly through parent interviews from age 21 months to 17 years. Data gathered over this period were dichotomized into broad groups relating to satisfactions with people and satisfactions with activities. Adult adjustment at age 30 was measured by two psychologists independently using the Block California Q-Sort (Block, 1961). If reliability did not reach 0.65 the Q-Sort of a third psychologist was added.

Table 2 shows the significant correlations between ratings of leisure time activities and satisfactions in childhood and the psychological health index in adulthood. Table 3 shows the correlations between items on the childhood and adult Q-Sort tests. The tables show that for males and to a lesser extent females, satisfactions during the 8 to 11 age period were somewhat more predictive than other age periods. For males, satisfactions with persons of the opposite sex, girlfriends or mother, were most predictive. For females, satisfactions in activities requiring independent behavior were most predictive.

TABLE 2

Correlations Between Ratings of Leisure Time Activities
and Satisfactions in Childhood and Psychological
Health Index in Adulthood
(Brooks and Elliott, 1971;55)

Rating	21 mos. to 3 yrs.		3 to 5 yrs.		5 to 8 yrs.	
	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)
Playmates	—0.14	0.02	0.15	—0.01	0.39**	0.21
Siblings					0.20	0.05
Parents:						
mother	0.18	0.03	0.11	0.00	0.47***	0.24
Father					—0.06	0.09
Overall	0.11	0.02	0.13	—0.19	0.28	—0.07

Rating	8 to 11 yrs.		11 to 14 yrs.		14 to 18 yrs.	
	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)	Male (N = 34)	Female (N = 38)
Friends (girl)	0.58***	0.05	0.40**	—0.10	0.31*	0.00
Friends (boy)	0.28	0.27*	0.15	0.05	0.25	—0.03
Mother	0.51***	—0.01	0.42**	—0.06	0.42**	0.11
Father	0.24	0.04	0.23	—0.08	0.17	0.01
Other adults	0.23	—0.20	0.37**	—0.11	0.24	0.17
Siblings	—0.13	0.25	0.19	0.14	0.02	0.33*
Intellectual pursuits	0.13	0.41***	—0.01	0.41***	0.00	0.35**
Work	—0.04	0.27*	0.15	0.25	0.05	0.22
Religion	0.33*	—0.06	0.28	0.01	0.17	0.09
Household activities	0.16	0.18	0.16	0.25	0.16	0.30*
School	—0.03	0.22	0.34**	0.23	0.23	0.26
Overall	0.38**	0.05	0.27	0.03	0.31*	0.21

* Significant at the 0.10 level.

** Significant at the 0.05 level.

*** Significant at the 0.01 level.

¹ Ratings that did not yield significant correlations for either sex at any age period were omitted from this table with one exception. Rating of 'Satisfactions with father' was included because it was the only rating concerning satisfactions with people that was not significantly predictive at any age period for either sex. It was considered worth-while to present all the ratings concerning satisfactions with people.

TABLE 3

Significant Correlations Between Items from the 'Leisure Time Activities and Satisfactions' Q-Sort in Childhood and the Psychological Health Index in Adulthood
(Brooks and Elliott, 1971;56)

Items	Male (N = 35)	Female (N = 39)
Greatest satisfactions came from what others did for subject	0.14	-0.45***
School was a source of satisfaction	0.00	0.41***
Seemed never to have developed many interests	-0.13	-0.40**
Derived satisfaction from an active fantasy life	-0.12	0.37**
Was an avid reader	-0.05	0.33**
Had a wide range of interests and satisfactions	0.10	0.31*
Was intellectually curious	0.04	0.30*
Satisfaction derived from own achievements rather than relationships with other	-0.07	0.30*
Derived satisfactions from active pursuits	0.12	-0.29*
Home was physically attractive	0.10	-0.28*
Relationship with mother was a source of satisfaction	0.36**	0.06
Adults outside the home were important	-0.33*	-0.24
Derived satisfactions from passive pursuits	-0.32*	-0.09
Most satisfactions were outside the home	-0.29*	-0.25
Was part of a large family that provided support	0.28*	-0.08

* Significant at the 0.10 level.

** Significant at the 0.05 level.

*** Significant at the 0.01 level.

¹ Negative correlation indicates the item was uncharacteristic of those judged to be psychologically healthy in adulthood.

Although these areas of satisfaction for boys and girls were most predictive of adult adjustment they were not areas of maximum satisfaction. For boys, satisfactions from activities such as athletics, hobbies, and outdoor interests and from persons such as fathers and male friends were necessary adjuncts for adjustment. In other words, satisfactions with the opposite sex were insufficient on their own to produce adjustment. A similar pattern was obtained for girls where satisfactions from artistic pursuits, hobbies, intellectual pursuits and boy friends were necessary adjuncts. Brooks and Elliot then considered the effects of socioeconomic status as a possible variable. Although producing some significant relationship, socioeconomic status by itself did not account for the results.

Coopersmith (1967) and the two studies just discussed while using differing terminology are studying the same aspect of personality. All show that the early years of life in the family context are most important for producing well adjusted individuals. Short term changes in the level of self-esteem are usually small and studies show that levels are stable for periods of several years (Thomas, 1969).

The Consequences of Self-Esteem

Although some of the consequences of self-esteem have been described it is necessary to examine the consequences for leisure in greater detail. Kaplan (1974) studied the psychological effects of an outdoor challenge program on 15-17 year old males. It is widely believed that programs of the Outward Bound type produce marked beneficial changes in personality. Before program study revealed differences between the voluntary participant group (10 persons) and the control group of 25 persons. The participant group showed higher

involvement and interest in the outdoors and camping and favoured individual hobby activities. The control group showed greater interest in social 'coming of age' activities such as dating, drinking and driving, etc. Both groups rated athletic activities equally highly. The participant group scored significantly higher in self-esteem than the control group.

About six months later after the program both groups were again tested. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Test (1965) was not effective for the participant group previously scored at the extreme high end of the scale leaving no room for improvement. The control group showed a slight improvement over the period. On a second self-rating scale used, 40 percent of the participant group and 25 percent of the control group showed slight declines in six months. Kaplan interprets this not as a real decline, but as more realistic self appraisal. Many of the results were inconclusive and only two significant differences occurred. Answers to the question, "If you could change yourself in any way, in what way would that be," showed that more than a third of the control group mentioned physical characteristics whilst only one of the participant group wanted a change and that was improved eyesight. About half of the participant group and only one of the control group did not desire any changes at all. In other words, the participant group were much more accepting of themselves and that in spite of known deficiencies did not desire improvement.

Kaplan places the blame for lack of success on poor methodology. This may be so but a different interpretation can be placed on the results. First there were no people in the participant group with low self-esteem and the average was higher than in the control group.

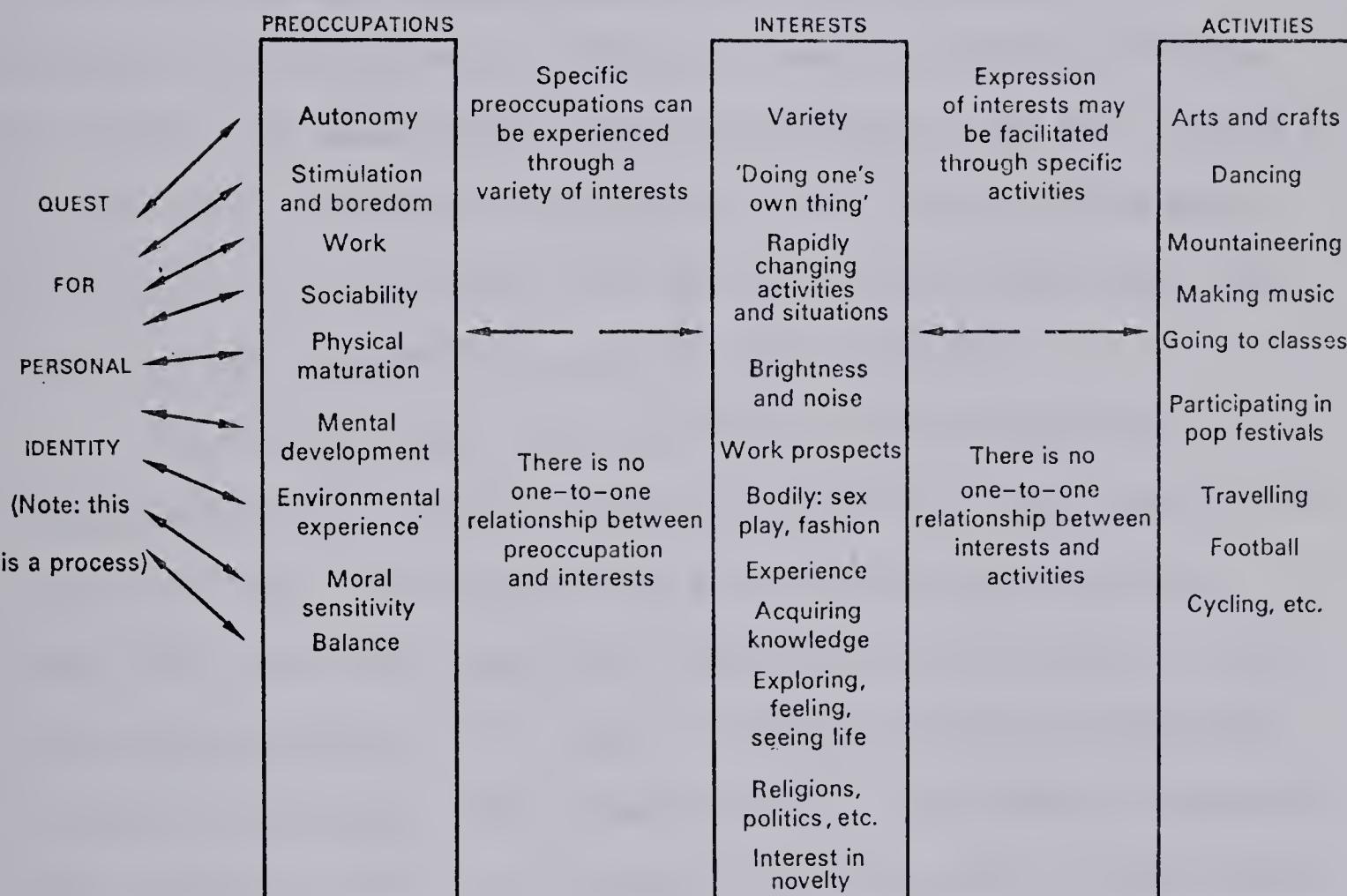
Secondly, the participant group appeared to be able to utilize free time more constructively than the control group who favoured more 'passive' activities. A possible explanation is that high self-esteem is a prerequisite for challenging, risk taking activities. Also the participant group's predeliction for individual hobby activity does not imply that they are less social than the control group. Possibly they are better able to gain satisfaction with less help from others. This interpretation would be more in line with Coopersmith's (1967) study where low self-esteem was linked to difficulty in forming friendships, lower ability to deal with uncertainty and greater dependence on supportive others. Results in the study may have been more revealing if the participants had been sponsored by employers or youth groups rather than outdoor oriented volunteers.

Several other studies show that there are links between environmental preference and self-esteem (Kaplan, 1977; Arbuthnot, 1977). Unfortunately the self-esteem measures used are all different. For example, studies by Rosenberg (1965), Kaplan (1974, 1977), Arbuthnot (1977) and Bachman and O'Malley (1977) all used the Rosenberg (1965) measure differently. Despite these differences it is possible to see that self-esteem does affect recreation interests and preferences. However, adolescents have a number of other areas of life which can be affected by self-esteem.

Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) suggest that the focal preoccupation of young people is the struggle between identity and identity diffusion. During the adolescent period there is a preoccupation with the question, "Who am I"? To answer this question the adolescent tries out various identities, experiences different roles, experiments

TABLE 4

Adolescent Preoccupations, Interests and Activities
(Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975;36)



with different kinds of relationships, and explores his own mental and physical properties and limits more actively than previously.

Although extreme short term changes in personality are possible the ability to come to terms with these adolescent problems has been shown to stem from an earlier period in life (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975).

Therefore, although the preoccupation during this period is with personal identity the ways in which the resources in the environment are used to aid understanding will be determined by the self concept of the individual. Rapoport and Rapoport (1975) illustrate nine major preoccupations in adolescence and the ways in which these could link with interests and activities and is shown in Table 4.

As with many other studies outlined here the Rapoports are discussing essentially the same aspects of personality while using differing terminology. The Rapoports use a behaviorist approach where, rather than delve into psychology, individuals are described in terms of self-presentation or life-style. Although differing terminology is used the study again shows that leisure is independent of time and place and further reinforces the need to differentiate it from recreation.

The Specific Problem

The literature review has concentrated on geography and planning, leisure, self-esteem and adolescents. A number of themes have been covered in the review and each alone could provide the basis for research. The intention is to attempt an interdisciplinary study and therefore depth has, to a certain extent to be sacrificed for breadth. It serves little purpose to repeat studies showing that some phenomena

is spatially distributed where the new technique becomes mere novelty (Rieser, 1974). There appears to be sufficient evidence supporting the belief that personality types are spatially differentiated. The question has now become one of finding out if personality differences effect individual behavior in space.

Clearly there are two methods of approaching the study of personality from a geographic viewpoint. One is to show a spatial distribution of personality types and then to show that some aspect of behavior covaries. The second approach is to show that differences in personality result in individuals behaving differently in space. Examples of this type could show how personality effected choice of home or work location, distance travelled to work or recreation, consumer behavior or agricultural behavior.

This study falls into the second category for a number of reasons. The first is that although it is possible to show a spatial differentiation of personality types at the city scale in Britain (Irving, 1975) the same conditions do not hold for Edmonton. In Britain easily identifiable areas with homogenous population exist in cities often in the past identifiable by class and now also identifiable by personality. In Edmonton the class structure is different and local planning practice does not easily allow the identification of areas of homogenous social or psychological properties. A second reason is that an understanding of spatial behavior may be more directly useful both geographically and for social planning. If the personality type producing certain behaviors is known than it will also be possible to know the type of socialization responsible. This in turn will allow the social

planners to modify socialization and thus alter long term behavior (Skinner, 1975). The type of planning visualized is the long term planning of society with a reduction of the present concentration on planning the physical environment (Jones, 1962). Although it may eventually be possible to use a Skinnerian behavioral methodology which leaves out psychology initially a knowledge of differing personalities will allow the methods of social change to be tailored to the differences in personality.

Planning for society is also the reason why leisure and adolescents are the vehicle for the study of self-esteem. If society really is becoming a leisure society than leisure will assume increasing importance in planning. Even if a fully fledged leisure society does not evolve a reassessment of and planning for leisure still has considerable importance. This future orientation is also the reason why adolescents are studied. First, apart from children, adolescents have the largest leisure career ahead of them and, in comparison to adults, will have most time to experience planning strategies. Adolescence is also a period of maximum stress in life and full utilization of free time is an important means of alleviating stress. A third reason for choosing adolescents exists due to increasing unemployment in society. The unemployed, because they are used to deriving well being from work have their problems exacerbated by too much free time. Adolescents are very dependent upon leisure because the majority have not had the opportunity to receive benefits from full time work. Therefore adolescents and the unemployed may be very similar in terms of leisure problems and planning for adolescents may provide insights which may

alleviate the problems of the unemployed.

At the outset this thesis was described as an exploratory study having, as a result, a number of general objectives. The hypotheses arising from the foregoing literature review can be described as research-problem oriented hypotheses. In other words their purpose is to guide the research and they will not be statistically tested in the way appropriate to an analytical survey. There are four basic hypotheses covering geography planning and leisure though all are interconnected.

Hypothesis 1. The level of self-esteem in adolescents effects their use of space.

Hypothesis 2. Adolescent leisure interests are effected by the level of self-esteem.

Hypothesis 3. Difficulties with free time increase with decreasing self-esteem.

Hypothesis 4. Childhood socialization is an important contributor to the level of self-esteem.

CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

To test the hypotheses presented in the previous chapter requires the collection of primary data. The type of measure used for self-esteem determines the form of the survey. Interview techniques requiring psychological expertise are ruled out due to the author's lack of training and also because the technique is extremely slow. There are two main categories of self-esteem measure based upon self-reports; questionnaires and Q-sort techniques. Q-sort methods require psychological expertise to administer and analyse and are also slow to complete. For these reasons the survey is based upon a questionnaire to gather the necessary information.

Sampling Frame

The following criteria apply to the design of a sampling frame for this study.

1. The method must be cheap in terms of time and money for neither are available in quantity.
2. A large sample size is required to maintain a reasonable sub-sample size during analysis.
3. Only adolescents who are old enough to have reasonable autonomy in leisure but not working full time are required.

4. Respondents should be spatially distributed evenly in the city, to reduce biasses due to location of residence.

Clearly these criteria require a stratified random sample. Any type of postal survey would be unrewarding due to the usual difficulties of non-response and the greater difficulty of identifying homes with suitable respondents. If four self-esteem groups are identified for analysis and acceptable statistical errors are required then around 500 returned questionnaires are required. This would demand that at least 2500 questionnaires be mailed costing around \$600.00. The 1973 census of households in Edmonton only lists those who are 18 years and older adding further disadvantages to a postal or door-to-door survey.

The high school system in Edmonton is clearly the best source of respondents. But to sample in schools would mean ignoring many of the criteria for random sampling. As this is an exploratory study it seems reasonable to use non-random sampling. This immediately restricts analysis to descriptive statistics and an inability to generalize the results. In spite of this the need to have a large sample size does appear to outweigh these considerable disadvantages.

The Edmonton Public School Board eventually allowed sampling in two high schools. The Separate School Board allowed sampling in five schools. A range of Grade 11 and 12 classes were requested but no control could be exercised over the type and quality of classes selected. Average class size was said to be 34 in both school systems. On these grounds five schools were selected with sampling in three classes in each. In this way a target of 500 questionnaires was aimed for. As will be discussed later, this was a gross overestimate due to absenteeism and other factors beyond the author's control.

Harry Ainlay representing the upper and M. E. LaZerte representing the middle and lower end of the socioeconomic spectrum were the Public Schools chosen. Louis St. Laurent, St. Francis Xavier, and St. Josephs were chosen from the five offered by the Separate School Board. Figure 1 (p. 54) shows the location of the schools which are not evenly distributed in the city as no control could be exercised over selection. Clearly this is non-probability sampling and nothing could be done about it as even this limited access was provided on a take-it or leave-it basis. The alternative possibility of selecting families together with a door-to-door distribution of questionnaires or interviews is thought to be even less desirable.

Questionnaire Design

There are four major interest areas to be incorporated in the questionnaire:

1. Self-esteem measure;
2. Information on free time activities;
3. Attitudes to free time;
4. Background information.

The total time available for administering the questionnaire was one 50 minute class period. Therefore, to allow for a brief introduction and an explanation of the purpose of the research at the end, completion time could not exceed 40 minutes.

Self-Esteem Measurement

Although a very large number of measures exist for self-esteem the available choice is quite restricted due to the limited time

available for completion. Choice is further restricted when measures requiring considerable psychological expertise for analysis are rejected. Only three measures are mentioned by Wells and Marwell (1975) as being available in a reasonably reliable format and capable of being completed in the available time. Of these, only Rosenberg's scale concentrates on self-esteem. This scale has been widely used in self-esteem research. However, in some studies, previously mentioned, results did not appear to be very reliable. This seems to be due to variability in analyzing the scale.

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965) is a Guttman scale comprising 10 questions grouped into a total of six scale items. Rosenberg also includes five other scales comprising Stability of Self, Faith in People, Sensitivity to Criticism, Depressive Affect and Day-dreaming scales. All the scales and Guttman scaling are discussed in Appendix A. In all the research studied only the self-esteem scale in original or modified form has been used. All six scales are used here in an attempt to overcome the ceiling effects experienced by Kaplan (1974) discussed earlier. Both sets of scales will be used initially before selecting the most consistent as a basis for analysis.

Free Time Activities

An attempt is made here to find out if respondents differentiate among free time, leisure and recreation. First, respondents were asked if they distinguished between leisure and free time. If the answer was 'yes,' respondents were then asked to indicate how much of their free time they considered to be leisure. These are questions 44 and 45 in the questionnaire reproduced in Appendix B.

Question 48 asked respondents to rank their leisure interests "in order of popularity, that is; amount of interest to you, rewards, time spent etc." Question 49 and 50 repeated this for free time and recreation. To obtain a ranking of activities the first choices were weighted x 3, the second x 2, and the third choice x 1. If these scores are summed and percentaged it is possible to rank each activity in order of popularity, (Selection, 1972).

Other questions focussing on free time are numbers 62 and 63. These examine the extent of activities in clubs in school and outside school. If self-esteem has an effect on behavior then those with low self-esteem should participate less in responsible positions in clubs. Also, as clubs are organized, low self-esteem individuals may show lower participation than high self-esteem people. Question 64 tries to find out how many friends the respondent has in class, school, other schools etc. If level of self-esteem affects ability to socialize then this should be reflected in the number and source of friends. These three questions are taken from Breton's (1972) study of social and academic factors which affect the career decisions of Canadian youth.

Attitudes to Free Time

If free time is to be beneficial, or at a minimum not boring, to an individual then their attitude to free time is important. Several areas are covered including self definition, amount of perceived leisure, society's role in leisure planning and affinity for leisure. All the questions are taken from a series of studies by Neulinger (1974). A majority in western society are socialized to believe that work is an important source of self definition and actualization. Now, as

discussed earlier, free time has to become an increasingly important source of these benefits. Question 4a, c, e and h examine whether a job will facilitate the achievement of personal ambitions. Adolescents who have not yet had the opportunity to work full time will reflect their socialization in their view of work or free time as sources of fulfillment. Questions 20 and 24 examine the relative mix of free time and work desired and should, again, be a reflection of socialization.

Questions 4b, d, f, g, 15 and 34 examine the amount of perceived leisure. This includes whether or not free time activities are merely time killing rather than satisfying and how boring free time is. If self-esteem is linked to decision making ability and utilization of free time requires personal decision making then level of self-esteem should relate to satisfaction with leisure.

One of the difficulties with free time is that it is a period of free choice. However planning is required to provide sources of satisfaction for the public. If freedom and lack of discipline in childhood leads to low self-esteem then less societal involvement will be tolerated by this group. The high self-esteem groups, who are better equipped to obtain satisfaction, should be more tolerant of societal involvement. In other words the group which requires special understanding by planners are also the people who will least tolerate society's efforts to improve leisure satisfaction. Question 31 examines the degree of involvement the respondent thinks that society should have in the provision of free time activities. Question 16 has eight parts each detailing a different activity that society could encourage. If self-esteem affects choice of activity then the differing emphasis given to each activity should be a reflection of self-esteem

Five semantic differential scales are included to examine the meaning of free time, leisure, recreation self and ideal self. There are two main reasons for including the scales. One is to examine the relative differences in the meaning of the five concepts and secondly to examine the effects of self-esteem on their meaning. Questions 3, 17, 28, 41 and 52 are the scales which are compiled from the work of Neulinger (1974) and Osgood et al., (1957). In theory the anchor words for the scales require selection from a pre-tested item pool (Summers, 1970). However, the scales have been used before in leisure research and this is thought to be adequate as pre-testing is not possible. Also the main interest is in the differences between scales and graphical rather than factor analysis will be used.

Needs

Although research linking needs with activities has not been overly successful, nine needs thought to be important to adolescents have been included. They are included because differing levels of self-esteem may alter the importance of the various needs. Question 37 lists the needs and allows ranking of each on a four point scale ranging from very important to indifferent. Neulinger's (1974) method of ranking all needs from one to nine is altered because it is thought that more than one need may be very important and one dominant need is unlikely in practice. This method of ranking also allows the analysis to be altered. By differentiating activities on the basis of a need being very important or not important then it should be possible to find out if high or low importance effects choice of activities.

Background Information

A number of sociometric questions are included and these are, age, sex, parents occupation, parents education, home address, length of residence, housing type and ownership. A socioeconomic measure was included because it may provide some clarification of the continuing discussion of the effects of socioeconomic status on leisure (Brown et al., 1973; Burdge and Field, 1972; Milton, 1975). Status was based on father's occupation using the Blishen Socioeconomic Index (Blishen and McRoberts, 1976) to rank respondents. This is the simplest Canadian classification to use and is based on a regression of income and education for each job category. The scale is based on the male workforce only and female one-parent households will be ranked as if they were male. Also the effect of the mother's employment contribution is ignored. There are great difficulties involved in social class ranking and here many of the problems are ignored. The importance of socioeconomic status in this study does not warrant the considerable extra effort which would be required to measure social status in a socio-logically acceptable fashion.

To enable the home locations of respondents to be mapped they are asked to fill in the avenue and street numbers, accurate to the nearest block. As Edmonton has a grid pattern of streets it is possible to use the numbers as coordinates and map them using a scattergram program on the computer. Where named or curved streets exist the actual coordinates will be coded.

Question 67 examines career decision making and post-school plans. Breton (1972) argues that career decision making requires the matching of self-concepts with the environment. Therefore it is to be

expected that those with low self-esteem are likely to have no decision, or, if a decision is made it will be less achievement oriented than the choices of high self-esteem individuals.

Question 65 asks respondents what they would do if they had to spend an extra hour at school. It is anticipated that those with low self-esteem will choose non-academic activities.

Satisfaction with home life is covered in questions 54 and 68. Question 54 asks "which is more satisfying, being at home alone, with brothers or sisters, with family, or with a friend or friends?" It is anticipated that those with an unsatisfactory home life will prefer being alone or with a friend or friends. The question is repeated for recreation and being outside home around town. Question 68 asks how often parents praise the respondent on the grounds that low self-esteem will relate to the respondent's perception of infrequent attention or praise.

Birth order and family size are covering in questions 69 and 70 because birth order is thought to effect self-esteem (Coopersmith, 1967).

Questions 71, 72 and part of 66 obtain information on the type of accommodation lived in, whether it is owned or rented and the length of residence. It is anticipated that a family with adolescent offspring living, for example, in a rented house may indicate a degree of deprivation in their circumstances. This condition may effect the level of self-esteem in the offspring.

Question 73 asks about personal use of a car which may effect self-esteem through increased autonomy. An alternative possibility is that caring parents may be more accepting and trusting of the adolescent

which could result in the use of a car.

Question 74 is included to find out if the country of origin of the father effects self-esteem in offspring. It is rather crude as there is no way of knowing how long the fathers have been in Canada if born outside. Different countries have different child rearing practices and it may be possible to identify these in spite of the crudeness.

Several of the questions included are, to a certain extent, superfluous due to the exploratory nature of the study. Many of the questions focus on the background factors thought to link with self-esteem. This is to allow comparison with other studies and to provide verification that self-esteem is actually being measured.

Questionnaire Layout and Administration

The questionnaire layout follows standard practice (Warwick and Lininger, 1975) except that there is no covering note or letter attached. The necessary introduction to the questionnaire was given verbally to reduce administration time and production costs. The majority of questions are taken from other studies so there should theoretically be no problems with question wording. Almost all the items are closed questions reducing the coding problems. The verbal introduction emphasizes the study's interest in finding out what the respondents do in their free time and what the activities mean to them. To reinforce this statement the first question is a semantic differential scale on what free time means to the respondent. This is followed by a second question on leisure and personal ambitions. Only after this is there a question relating to attitude to self. All the important scales measuring self-esteem are placed early in the

questionnaire before attention starts to wander. The factual questions on age, sex, etc., are placed at the end of the questionnaire where inattention will be less serious.

Apart from these aspects question sequencing does not appear to be critical as there are no leading questions which may bias later responses. The semantic differential scales all have the same anchor words which are randomized for each scale to reduce response set. The order of difficulty of the Guttman scale items are also randomized and also distributed through the questionnaire.

The verbal introduction given includes all aspects normally covered in a written introduction to a questionnaire. Briefly this is the author's name and affiliation together with an explanation of why the respondents help is required. After completion, a more complete explanation of the purpose of the study was given. During completion, help was given where necessary if confusion existed.

Pre-Testing

It was not possible to pretest the questionnaire in schools due to the limited access permitted. Therefore some pretesting was carried out using first year geography students at the University of Alberta. The main aim was to find out if there were difficulties in understanding question meaning and wording. Twenty students filled in the questionnaire and none experienced difficulty in understanding the questions although several suggested wording changes. Examination of the questionnaires confirmed the belief that the questions had been understood by the students.

Analysis

As this is primarily a descriptive exploratory study analysis will be restricted to descriptive statistics and presentation of results in tabular format. Also the low quality of the sample and the fact that much of the data is nominal precludes the use of statistically powerful testing. Where possible and relevant the appropriate statistical tests will be used to show that differences in means are significant.

A basic part of the study is the self-esteem Guttman scales. These are evaluated using the S.P.S.S. subprogram 'Guttman Scale' which provides the statistics necessary for evaluation. Appendix A covers all aspects of the analysis and includes the necessary outputs. The questions comprising the scales are used only for self-esteem measurement and are not used for other purposes.

For analysis the data has to be grouped on the basis of several categories of self-esteem. This, as discussed earlier, will depend upon whether the six item or combined scales provide the most consistent results. The number of categories used will depend upon the range and distribution of self-esteem. Rosenberg (1965) used high, medium and low categories with high self-esteem representing 'best' adjustment. As discussed earlier it is thought to be desirable to have a category to include those respondents who have too high a level of self-esteem.

By categorizing the various data on the basis of self-esteem and presenting the results in tabular format it should be possible to show that differences do exist. Clearly the hypotheses stated in Chapter I cannot be statistically tested in many cases due to the quality of the data and are mainly used to guide the analysis. Much of the burden of

showing that differences exist will depend upon showing that trends exist across the self-esteem categories.

Limitations of the Study

The results in this study cannot be generalized to the population due to the biased sample. No control could be exercised over the quality of students sampled and it is not known if they are representative of the high school student body. The sample is also biased due to the fact that only high school students are sampled. All those who left school at the minimum leaving age are excluded. There is reason to believe that this biases the sample toward higher self-esteem.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The analysis is divided into two main sections, first the links between the background variables and self-esteem are examined and then the links between self-esteem and free time. The chapter begins by examining the sample achieved in the survey.

The Sample

A total of 409 questionnaires were filled in, of which 18 were rejected giving a total of 391. Response was generally good with only three cases of deliberate misrepresentation and fifteen cases with too many questions with answers omitted. The shortfall in total numbers is due to absenteeism and average class size being smaller than anticipated. Table 5 shows the distribution of respondents among the various schools and Figure 1 shows the distribution of respondents in Edmonton.

Sampling took place from 8th March to 28th March, 1978.

The questions on leisure, free time and recreation activities caused difficulties for about 40 percent of the sample. This is serious because the resulting small sub-sample size limits the amount of analysis possible. No respondent mentioned having difficulty understanding the questions and the poor response was not noticed until sampling was almost complete. The trouble appears to have been caused by the combination of questions and poor wording.

LOCATION OF SCHOOLS AND

RESPONDENTS HOMES

EDMONTON

FIG 1

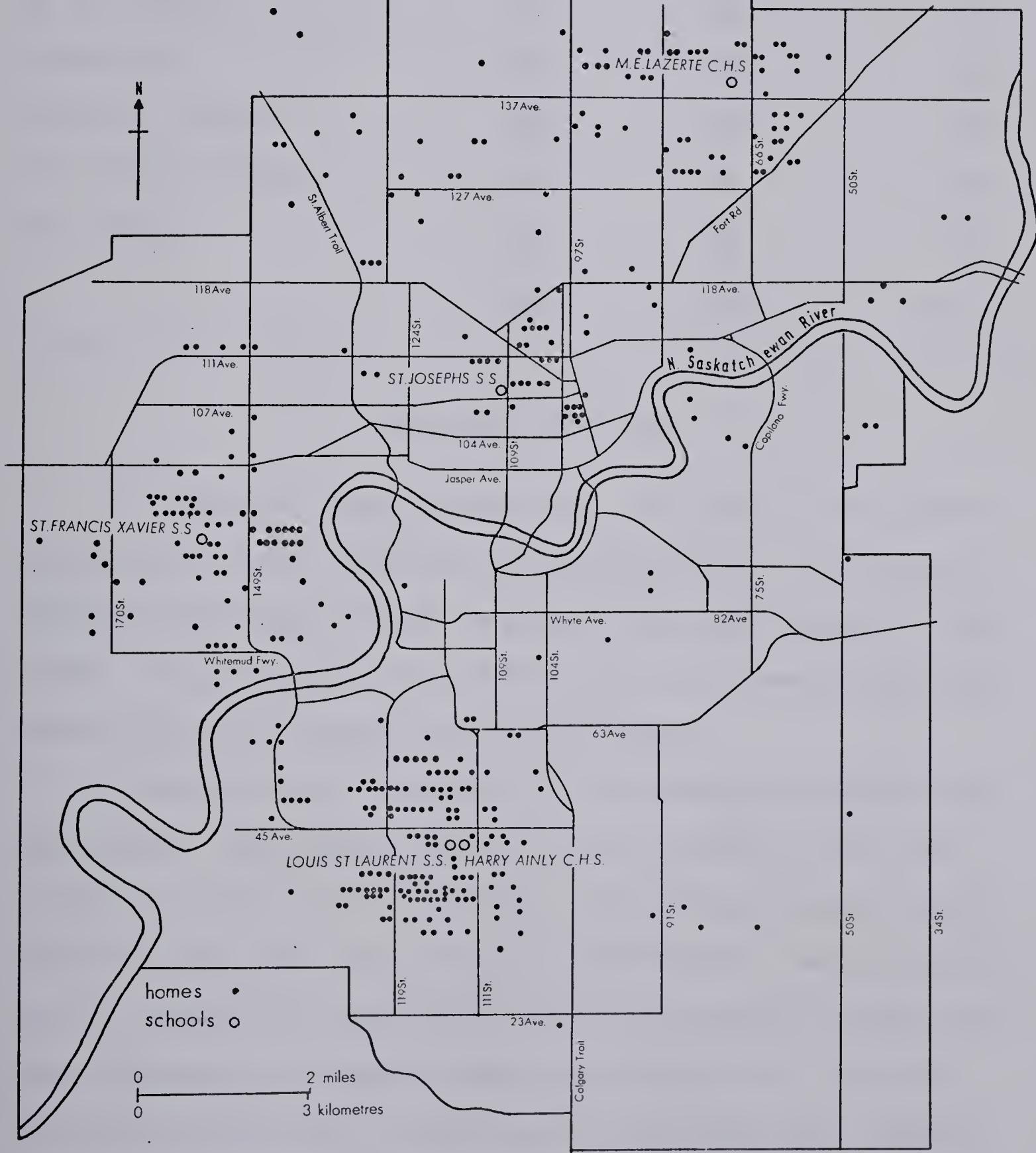


TABLE 5
Distribution of Respondents Among Schools

School	Male	Female	Total
M. E. La Zerte	41	33	74
Harry Ainlay	44	32	76
Louis St. Laurent	28	50	78
St. Francis Xavier	48	34	82
St. Josephs	30	51	81
	191	200	391

Background Variables

To reduce the volume of the results the sample is only differentiated by sex where significant differences occur. As discussed in Appendix A the sample analysis is based on the global measure of self-esteem. Four categories are used with Group 1 representing high self-esteem and Group 4 representing low self-esteem.

Quality of home life appears to be an important contributor to self-esteem. Socioeconomic status is often considered to be a contributor to quality of life. Table 6 shows that socioeconomic status only has a very weak effect on level of self-esteem. The socioeconomic status categories are those used by Blishen and McRoberts (1976) except that the lowest two categories have been combined here. The cross tabulation produced here is only one of a very large number produced using different categories for self-esteem and socioeconomic status.

TABLE 6
Self-Esteem and Socioeconomic Status

Count	Row Percent	Self-Esteem Level				Row Count
		HIGH	2	3	LOW	
1	6	24	23	6		
	10.2	40.7	39.0	10.2		59
	14.3	15.3	17.4	10.2		15.1
	1.5	6.1	5.9	1.5		
2	14	44	27	11		
	14.6	45.8	28.1	11.5		96
	33.3	28.0	20.5	18.3		24.6
	3.6	11.3	6.9	2.8		
SOCIO						
3	11	35	32	13		
	12.1	38.5	35.2	14.3		91
ECONOMIC	26.2	22.3	24.2	21.7		23.3
	2.8	9.0	8.2	3.3		
STATUS						
4	6	32	31	15		
	7.1	38.1	36.9	17.9		84
	14.3	20.4	23.5	25.9		21.5
	1.5	8.2	7.9	3.8		
LOW	5	22	19	15		
	8.2	36.1	31.1	24.6		61
	11.9	14.0	14.4	25.0		15.6
	1.3	5.6	4.9	3.8		
COLUMN	42	157	132	60		391
TOTAL PCT	10.7	40.2	33.8	15.3		100.0

CHI Square = 11.64 with 12 degrees of freedom
Critical chi square = 21.03 at the .05 level of significance

Results showed that in every case the relationship was weak. Only in the low self-esteem group is there a relationship showing a slight tendency for low self-esteem to relate to lower socioeconomic status.

Parental problems are a probable cause of differences in levels of self-esteem and this is shown to be the case in Table 7. The trend shows a linkage between low self-esteem and problems with fathers.

TABLE 7
Problems with Fathers

Father	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Missing	1	5	5	3
Retired	0	4	3	1
Dead	1	4	4	3
Unemployed	0	2	1	1
Legal Guardian	0	0	1	0
	2	15	14	8
Total in self-esteem level	41	157	133	60
Percentage with problem father	4.88	9.55	10.53	13.33

To be included in the missing category fathers had to be missing from the occupation question and question 68 concerning the amount of praise from father. The retired category is included because old parents are less likely to be able to participate in children's activities than younger fathers. In no case did the fathers hold jobs with a low

retirement age.

Table 8 shows that the situation is similar with mothers though to a lesser extent. The table also shows the percentage of working mothers at each level of esteem. Results also show that working mothers are not detrimental to self-esteem which is in line with Coopersmith's (1967) findings.

TABLE 8
Problems with Mothers

Mother	N	Self-Esteem Level				N	Percent	
		1	2	3	4			
Housewife only	18	43	69	44	75	56	30	50
Working	24	57	86	55	56	42	28	47
Dead or missing	0	0	2	1	2	2	2	3
	42	100	157	100	133	100	60	100

Coopersmith's (1967) discussion of parental effects on self-esteem shows that the self-esteem, stability and ability of parents to structure the lives of offspring are important contributors. Here parental education is used because it is a convenient surrogate measure of parental ability. Although Table 9 supports the belief that parental education effects the self-esteem of children, the increasing 'don't know' response with decreasing self-esteem is more interesting. If a well integrated family produces high self-esteem then the higher percentage of 'don't knows' with low self-esteem indicates less knowledge

TABLE 9
Parental Education

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
<u>Father</u>				
High school or less	45	55	54	55
Post high school	53	41	42	37
Don't know	2	4	4	8
	100	100	100	100
<u>Mother</u>				
High school or less	62	64	59	77
Post high school	38	34	38	18
Don't know	0	2	3	5
	100	100	100	100

of parents and, possibly, less communication.

The amount of interest parents express toward children is another source of self-esteem. Amount of praise is a surrogate measure although it is highly likely that it reflects parental interest. The answers are dependent upon the respondents perception of frequency of praise and is therefore not an equivalent measure of frequency across the esteem groups. Table 10 shows the results for fathers, mothers and the average for both parents. The table shows a marked relationship between amount of praise and level of self-esteem. It is also shown that the attention of both parents is an important factor in producing higher self-esteem.

TABLE 10
Frequency of Parental Praise

Praise	Self-Esteem Level							
	1		2		3		4	
	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother	Father	Mother
Very often	17	25	17	20	11	23	11	4
average		21.0		18.5		17.0		7.5
Quite often	48	57	50	56	46	45	23	42
average		52.5		53.0		45.5		32.5
Not too often	26	15	27	20	34	29	43	39
average		20.5		23.5		31.5		41.0
Almost never	9	2	6	4	9	2	23	15
average		5.5		5.0		5.5		19.0
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Other studies have shown that the relationship between birth order, family size, and self-esteem are quite complex. Table 11 shows this to be true and clearly there must be some confounding variable to cause this curious pattern. Controlling for socioeconomic status did not make the pattern any more comprehensible. It is widely accepted that the first born children have higher self-esteem than later born children (Coopersmith, 1976; Hamachek, 1971). The results fail to support this belief, and are peculiar in that a majority are first born yet average number of siblings appears to be three in a family. This must be caused by poor question wording.

TABLE 11

Relationships Between Birth Order, Family Size and Self-Esteem

	Order	1 Size	Self-Esteem Level			Order	4 Size	
			2 Order	2 Size	3 Order			
First or only child	43	2	30	3	29	3	45	7
2	26	17	28	18	28	14	30	22
3	14	33	23	27	26	26	13	28
4	10	24	11	24	11	25	2	20
5	5	10	3	6	4	11	5	8
6 or more children	2	14	5	21	4	23	5	15
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Quality of home life will be reflected in choice of company when at home. Table 12 shows that self-esteem is related to companionship desired at home. The results show that family and friends are chosen by the higher esteem groups while being alone or with friends are chosen by the lower esteem groups.

Academic achievement is often related to level of self-esteem. Table 13 shows the choices made if an extra hour has to be spent at school. Surprisingly 22 percent of those with low self-esteem chose subjects of their own choice. If low esteem links with poor academic achievement then it would appear that this could be caused by inability to accept the rules and restricted choice of subjects in school. The high esteem group appear to be happier with available subjects and

TABLE 12
Sources of Satisfaction at Home

Prefer to be at Home	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Alone	13	16	29	36
With Siblings	0	7	5	7
With Family	54	40	28	16
With Friends	33	37	38	41
	100	100	100	100

TABLE 13
Use of an Extra Hour at School

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Subjects of Own Choosing	12	15	37	22
Athletics	38	44	37	37
School Clubs or Organizations	17	14	18	12
Use it as a Study Period	33	27	30	29
	100	100	100	100

therefore only 12 percent want a free choice. Clubs are not chosen by many with low esteem due, perhaps, to their dislike of school organization.

Post-school decision making is often linked to level of self-esteem and this is shown in Table 14. Those with high self esteem show

the greatest percentage wanting to attend university and travel and the lowest percentage wanting to work or failing to make a decision. Only the higher groups show a desire to travel.

TABLE 14

Post-School Decisions

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Work	0	15	11	13
University	83	64	65	60
Police	2	3	2	7
Commercial Art	0	0	2	0
Travel	2	1	0	0
Armed Services	0	1	0	0
No Decision	12	16	20	20
	100	100	100	100

Table 15 shows that the use of a car is related to level of self-esteem. However as discussed earlier it is not clear whether this is due to caring, trusting parents providing a car or the use of a car tends to improve self-esteem. However the average age of the high esteem group (16.64 years) is slightly lower than the other groups--self-esteem 2 = 16.81, self-esteem 3 = 16.80, and self-esteem 4 = 16.75. Therefore there is less chance of the high esteem group being old enough to hold a licence.

TABLE 15

Use of Car

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
No	50	41	41	70
Yes	50	59	59	30
	100	100	100	100

The examination of these background variables shows considerable agreement with previously published work on the antecedants of self-esteem.

Self-Esteem and Leisure

Decision Making

Table 16 shows that difficulties with free time are related to level of self-esteem. If the categories are assumed to be equal interval the mean shows that those with low self-esteem do have greater difficulty utilizing free time. The form of the data precluded any significance testing due to the number of zeros present.

Table 17 shows the percentage of free time activities thought to be merely for killing time. It is possible to use a 't' test to show that the attitudes to free time are significantly different across the self-esteem groups.

TABLE 16

Difficulties with Free Time

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
1. Leisure always filled with things to do	17	8	7	8
2. Usually no trouble finding things to do	64	60	49	41
3. Sometimes do not know what to do	19	28	30	27
4. Usually do not know what to do	0	1	5	3
5. Sometimes feel quite bored	0	2	8	12
6. Usually feel quite bored	0	1	2	7
7. Always feel quite bored	0	1	0	0
	—	—	—	—
	100	100	100	100
Average Score:	2.02	2.36	2.64	2.9

TABLE 17

Percentage of Free Time Activities
Merely for Killing Time

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Mean Percentage	24.15	26.51	35.54	38.46
Standard Deviation	12.45	15.58	18.81	23.31
Number in Group	42	157	132	60

$$H_0: \text{Self-esteem}_1 - \text{Self-esteem}_4 = 0$$

$$t = 3.9$$

With 60 df at the .05 level of significance $t = 2.0$

$$\therefore \text{Self-esteem}_1 - \text{Self-esteem}_4 \neq 0$$

$$H_0: \text{Self-esteem}_2 - \text{Self-esteem}_3 = 0$$

$$t = 4.37$$

With 60 df at the .05 level of significance $t = 1.96$

$$\therefore \text{Self-esteem}_2 - \text{Self-esteem}_3 \neq 0$$

The other adjacent values are not significantly different.

Again those with low self-esteem find free time less rewarding. However these results may be due to the fact that low self-esteem individuals may not be oriented toward leisure or free time for achieving satisfactions. Question 4a, c, d, and h are included to examine sources of personal fulfillment. A seven point scale ranging through neutral from agree very strongly (7) to disagree very strongly (1) was used. To allow the use of a mean it is possible to treat the seven point scale

as an interval measure. Table 18 shows the results. The means for all levels of esteem show a marked grouping around indecision, and this is possibly the result of asking hypothetical questions. However it does show that the low self-esteem group is not markedly different to the others in their socialization toward work and free time.

TABLE 18
Self-Definition Through Work or Leisure

Question	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
4a. Personal ambitions realized in a job rather than free time	4.14	4.31	4.35	4.2
4c. Famous for something done in job rather than in free time	3.83	3.69	3.9	4.02
4e. More important to be good at free time activities rather than job	3.21	3.12	3.06	3.63
4h. Free time activities express talents better than a job will	4.69	4.31	4.24	4.17

Society's Role in Leisure Planning

The types of socialization producing various levels of self-esteem may also be reflected in attitudes to societal roles in leisure planning. However Table 19 shows that the relationship is slight although in the expected direction.

TABLE 19
Society's Role in Leisure Planning

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
1. Society should prohibit certain free time activities and only allow certain others	2	1	0	0
2. Society should prohibit certain free-time activities	0	2	1	0
3. Society should encourage certain free-time activities and discourage certain others	12	18	14	15
4. Society should discourage certain free-time activities	0	1	1	0
5. Society should encourage certain free-time activities	17	15	11	15
6. Society should make available information about free-time activities but not actively encourage or discourage what a person does in his free time	62	52	60	63.3
7. What a person does in his free time is none of society's concern.	7	12	14	16.7
	—	—	—	—
	100	100	100	100

A second question examined the types of activities that society should encourage. This is one area where sex differences should occur if the findings by Brooks and Elliot (1971) are valid. Table 20 shows results for eight types of activities that society should encourage. The seven point scale, ranging from very strongly encourage (7) to very strongly discourage (1) is treated as interval measurement to allow the use of means.

TABLE 20
Free Time Activities Society Should Encourage

		Self-Esteem Level			
		1	2	3	4
Mental Activities	Male	4.82	4.86	5.00	4.13
	Female	5.32	5.13	5.12	4.95
Habit Forming Drugs	M	1.59	1.89	2.03	1.95
	F	1.74	1.60	2.15	1.82
Idleness	M	2.40	2.39	2.39	2.45
	F	1.95	2.35	2.60	2.24
Social Work, Clubs	M	5.13	5.18	4.75	4.59
	F	5.68	5.51	5.61	5.34
Arts	M	4.86	4.77	4.83	4.77
	F	5.47	5.28	5.27	5.34
Alcohol	M	2.91	3.08	3.08	3.18
	F	2.68	2.72	2.71	2.66
Hobbies	M	5.18	5.62	5.27	5.36
	F	5.79	5.50	5.56	5.34
Physical Exercise	M	6.09	6.55	6.27	6.36
	F	6.31	6.27	6.32	6.18

Females are seen to score higher on mental activities, social affairs and arts as would be expected following the work of Brooks and Elliot (1971). Physical exercise is the most popular activity for both sexes followed, in order, by hobbies, social work and clubs, arts and finally mental activities. Those with low self-esteem show less interest in mental activities and social organizations than those with higher self-esteem. For other activities no clear pattern emerges.

Number of Friends

Coopersmith (1967) found that it was an individual's perception of social success rather than peer appraisal of his competence and success that determines self regard. Therefore, although peers may regard an individual favorably on the basis of overt behavior the individual may still have low self-esteem. Consequently the number of friends an individual says he has should be related to self-esteem. The perceived number of friends from various environments is shown in Table 21.

Clearly all respondents profess to have a large number of friends and it is not clear how friendship is defined. In spite of this the means show a general trend to fewer friends with decreasing self-esteem. The high esteem group shows a greater number of friends from other high schools, university or who work. Those with the second highest level of esteem have more friends drawn from class and their own school. The low esteem group have the highest percentage of friends who are unemployed and the lowest percentage drawn from university. If low self-esteem is related to low achievement at school (Bachman and O'Malley, 1977) then there is greater likelihood of low esteem individuals having friends outside the academic system. Coopersmith (1967) also found that there was a tendency for groups to be formed of individuals of similar esteem level and this is substantiated by these results.

Membership of Clubs

Table 22 shows that there is a positive relationship between levels of activity in clubs and self-esteem. Clubs outside school

TABLE 21

Number of Friends

Self-Esteem Level

Number of Friends	1	2	3	4	Unemployed										Working									
					University					Other H.S.					School					Class				
0	12	7	19	17	36	8	6	11	24	23	42	10	5	10	35	22	44	12	19	38	33	40		
1	5	2	7	5	7	17	4	3	5	13	8	8	5	4	5	9	14	11	14	3	9	17	22	5
2	10	2	7	12	12	10	10	2	10	13	13	15	13	3	12	14	14	10	19	3	14	19	10	10
3	17	5	7	17	10	7	11	4	9	12	12	7	13	8	14	11	15	5	12	5	12	2	2	16
4	7	5	10	5	14	12	16	6	6	7	9	4	8	8	11	11	7	5	14	2	7	10	5	0
5	2	0	10	10	2	2	7	4	3	6	6	1	13	7	5	3	5	3	3	2	3	2	5	0
6 or more	52	79	52	33	38	17	44	76	55	26	29	22	40	66	43	17	23	23	26	72	36	12	22	29
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
Average	4.1	5.1	4.4	3.5	3.6	2.2	4.2	5.2	4.2	2.8	3.1	2.1	4.0	4.9	4.0	2.3	2.8	2.2	3.1	4.7	3.3	1.8	2.3	2.5

are patronized by a higher percentage of low self-esteem individuals due possibly to negative feelings about the school environment. The trends across the lower esteem groups would suggest that more than 17 percent of the high esteem group should be elected to office. This shortfall may result from misperception of their own ability by the high esteem group while election to office is determined by peer group perception of ability and personality.

TABLE 22

Club Membership

	Self-Esteem Level							
	1		2		3		4	
	In	Out-	In	Out-	In	Out-	In	Out-
	School	Side	School	Side	School	Side	School	Side
Office	17	17	20	24	14	17	3	13
Very Active	40	48	36	38	23	26	20	30
Not Very Active	12	5	9	8	7	8	12	12
Not a Member of Any Club	31	31	36	31	56	50	63	45
	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

Attitudes to Self and Free Time Activity

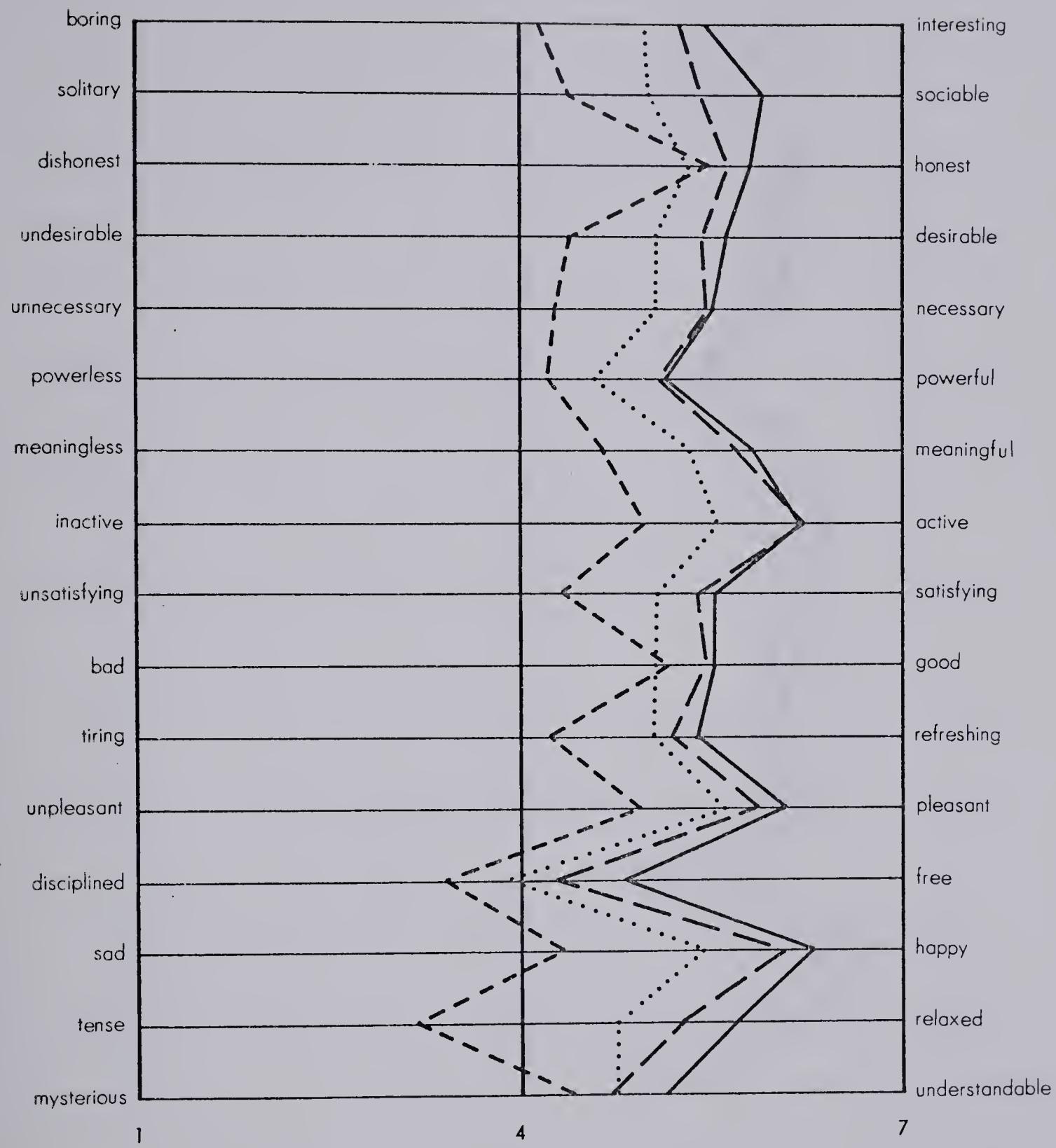
The semantic differential scales rating self, ideal-self, free time, leisure and recreation, (Figures 2 - 6), show a progression from positive attitudes with high self-esteem to generally more natural attitudes associated with low self-esteem. Recreation elicits the most positive attitudes as well as the smallest deviation across the four

self-esteem levels. The ideal-self scale also shows close agreement exhibiting an almost common conception of the ideal self. Leisure and free time scales show greater discrepancies and the attitudes to self scale shows the greatest discrepancy across the four levels of self-esteem.

To aid interpretation the distance representing differences significant at the .05 level are shown on each figure. This is computed for the scale having the worst standard deviation and the smallest n. Therefore it is possible that some differences, significant at the .05 level are not apparent. However this method does allow a simple method of showing that significant differences do occur on the various graphs.

There are two ways of explaining attitudes to self and ideal self. One is that individuals with low self-esteem have generally lower affect toward self or recreation or ideal-self than those with high self-esteem. Therefore the difference between self and ideal-self attitudes should be similar and independent of self-esteem. This is clearly not the case as the discrepancy between self and ideal self attitude increases with decreasing self-esteem.

In view of the family antecedent conditions which effect self-esteem it is notable that those with low self-esteem feel themselves to be much more disciplined than the high esteem group. It would seem that a lack of parental control reduces the ability to accept the rules existing in extra-family situations such as school. Also they feel themselves to be much less interesting, sociable, desirable, necessary, meaningful, active, satisfying, refreshing, pleasant, happy, and relaxed than others with higher self-esteem. These differences tend to disappear when the ideal-self is considered. The high self-esteem



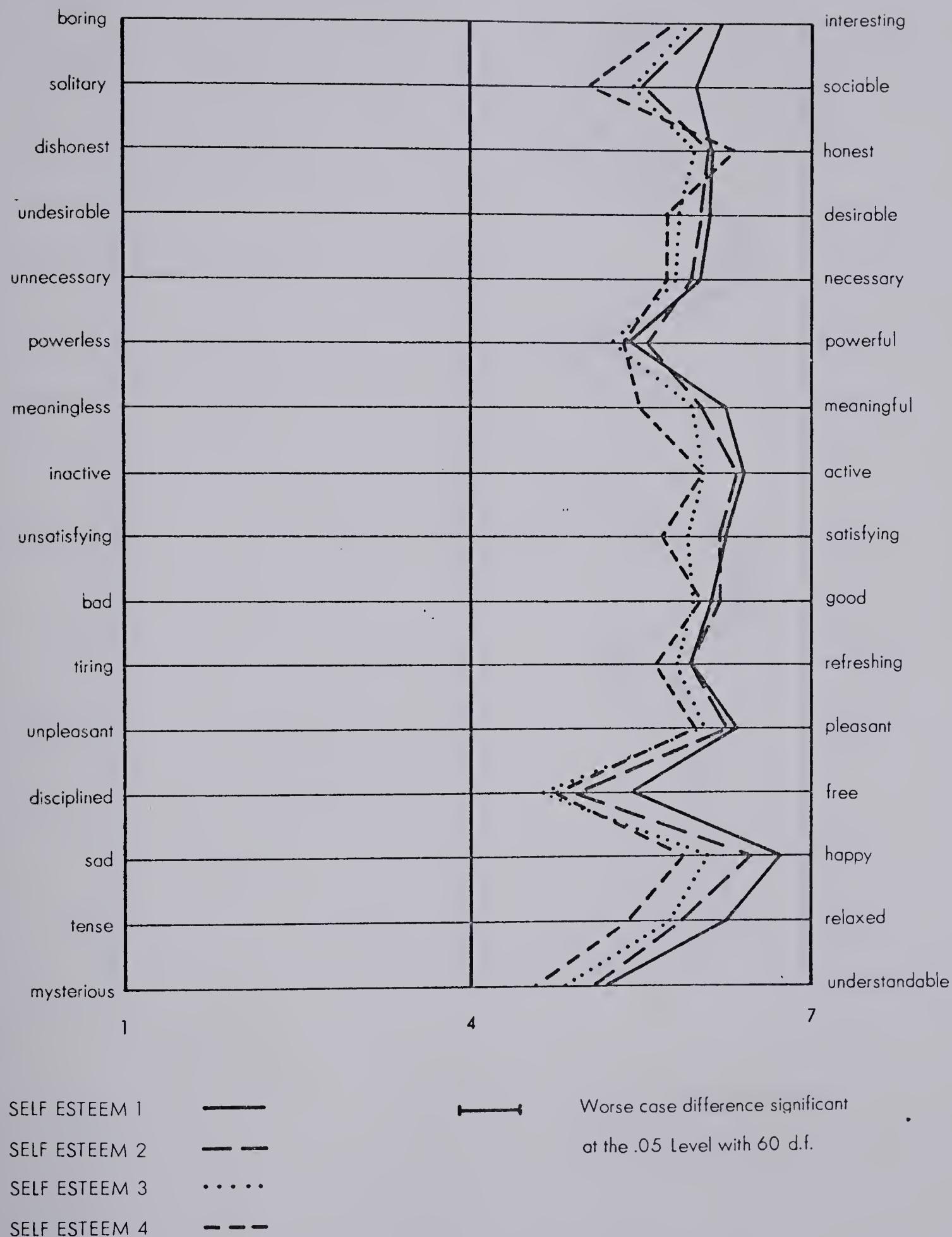
SELF ESTEEM 1 —————
 SELF ESTEEM 2 ————
 SELF ESTEEM 3 ······
 SELF ESTEEM 4 - - - -



Worse case difference significant
at the .05 Level with 60 d.f.

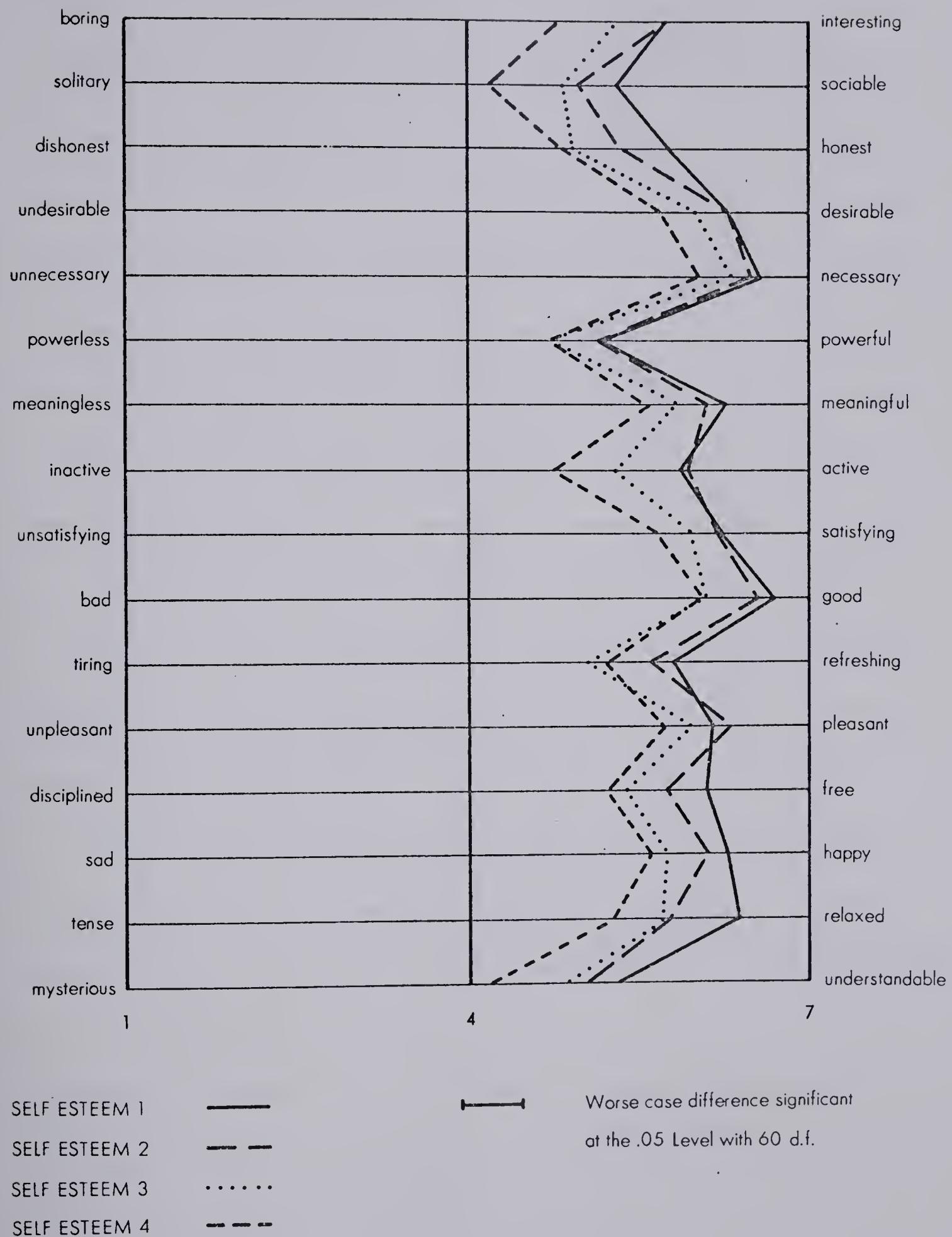
GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR SELF

Figure 2



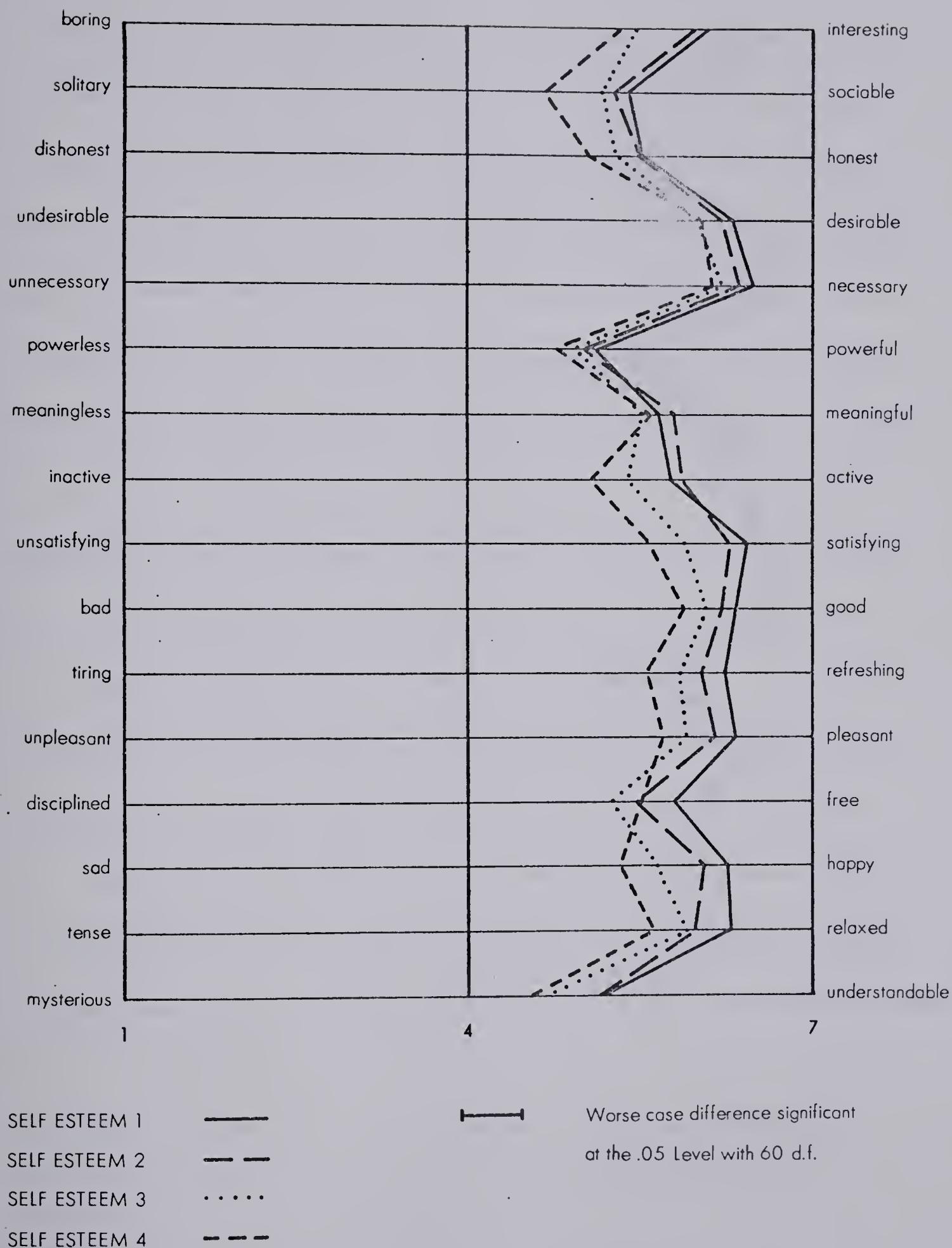
GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR IDEAL SELF

Figure 3



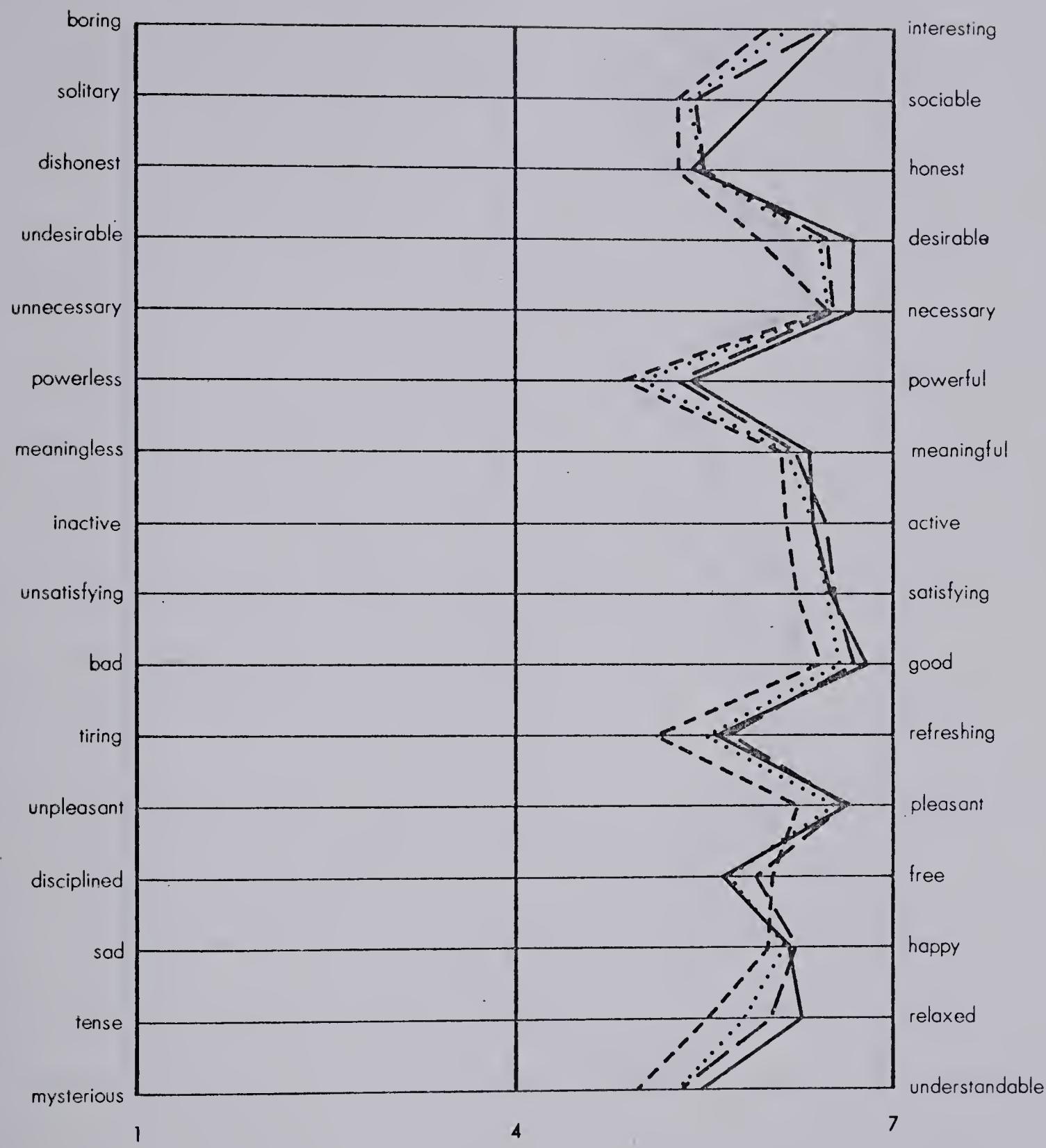
GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR FREE TIME

Figure 4



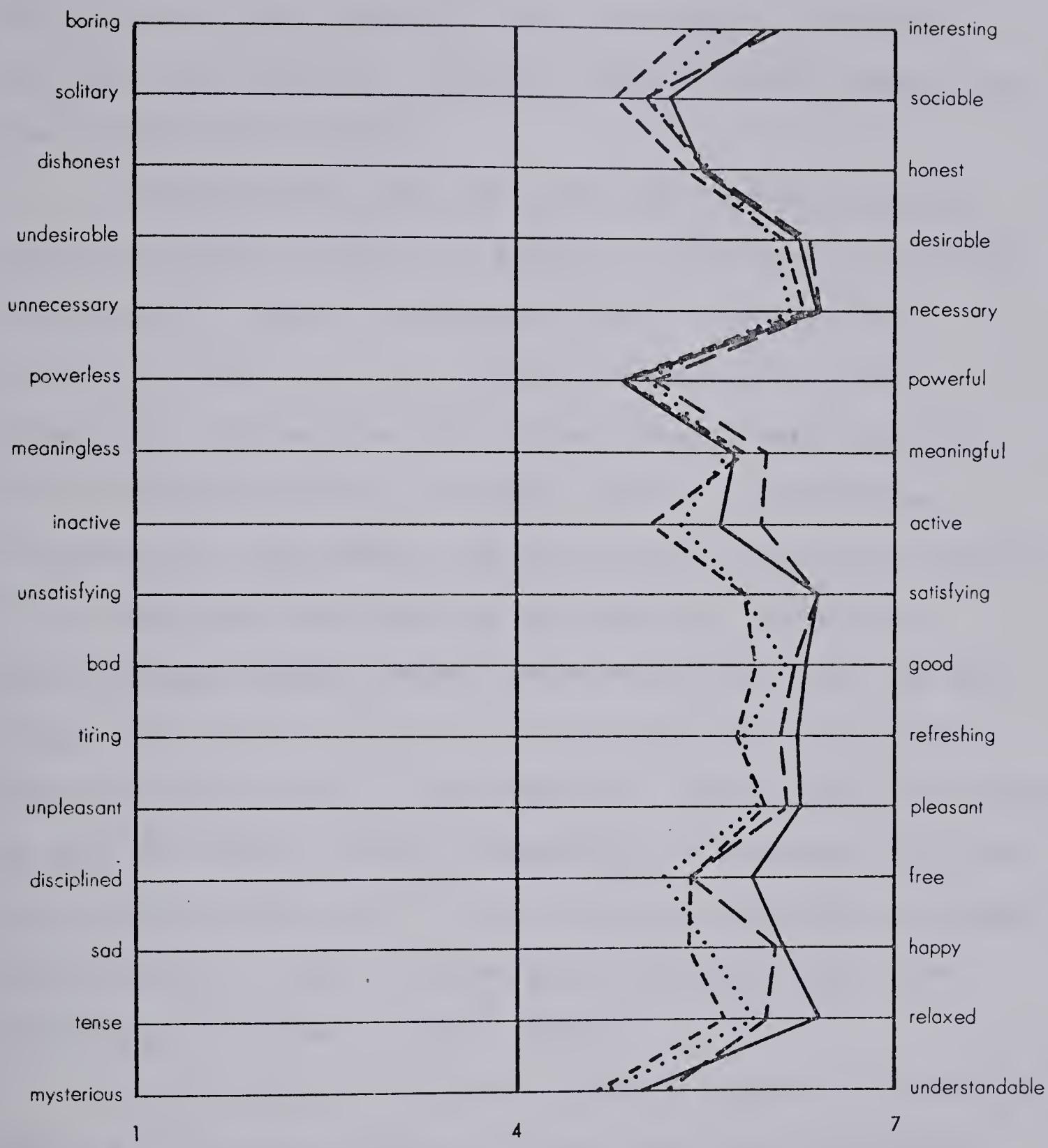
GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR LEISURE

Figure 5



GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR RECREATION

Figure 6



SELF ESTEEM 1 ————— Worse case difference significant
 SELF ESTEEM 2 —— at the .05 Level with 60 d.f.
 SELF ESTEEM 3
 SELF ESTEEM 4 - - -

GRAPHICAL COMPARISON OF SCORE MEANS FOR LEISURE Figure 7

(only those who differentiate between leisure and free time)

group show least change between present and ideal conception of self. The low esteem group would still wish to be relatively solitary and feel much more interesting, necessary, powerful, active, happier and more relaxed than at present.

Attitudes to free time and leisure show that the low esteem group rate these as solitary and inactive in comparison to the higher esteem groups. Leisure and recreation appear to have a similar connotation while free time is viewed more negatively by the low esteem group. On the other hand recreation has a consistent high score irrespective of level of esteem. This is possibly because recreation is a more tangible concept than either free time or leisure. Of the four groups those with low self-esteem see recreation as having the most freedom, perhaps leading to the high scores for this group. The positive attitude to recreation may also be due to it reducing decision making for the individual. Once the decision is made to play, for example, football or badminton, an individual's activity is structured by the rules of the game and does not require independent decision making. Support is given to this suggestion when actual activities are studied in a later section.

In view of the difficulties in defining leisure it is useful to find out if there are differences between those who differentiate between leisure and free time and those who do not. Table 23 shows that the high self-esteem group and the low esteem group have the highest percentage of free time considered to be leisure. Figure 6 also shows that there is little difference between those who differentiate and those who do not when leisure is rated on a semantic differential scale.

TABLE 23
Distribution of Those Who Distinguish
Between Free-Time and Leisure

	Self-Esteem Level			
	1	2	3	4
Don't Distinguish	38	48	50	46
Do Distinguish	62	52	50	54
	100	100	100	100
Percentage of Free Time Considered to be Leisure	47.4	38.0	40.2	40.8

Although the differences are not great respondents have the most positive feelings about recreation. Free time is obviously a more nebulous concept and there is a marked difference in attitude between the various esteem groups. Greatest differences occur across the groups in their attitudes about the sociability, activity and relaxation involved in free time.

Free Time, Leisure and Recreation Activities

A 60 percent response rate on the free-time, leisure and recreation activity questions severely limits the presentation of results. The problem appears to stem from the question sequence and wording in that part of the questionnaire. The poor response was unexpected for problems were not mentioned either during pre-testing or sampling as can be seen from Tables 24 to 32 when breaking down the sample by self-esteem group and sex, several of the activities are mentioned by only one respondent. Under these conditions it would be extremely questionable

to use any statistical technique to establish whether differences in choice between the groups are statistically significant. The percentages in Tables 25 to 32 do not total to 100 because only activities chosen by more than one respondent are included in the tables.

Males

To provide a reference point for the various breakdowns a list of the 15 most important free time interests for the whole sample is shown in Table 24. Table 25 shows the male free time interests and several very obvious differences exist across the four self-esteem groups. In the higher esteem groups socializing is the most important activity while in the lower groups it drops in popularity. The first two choices for the low esteem group are solitary and are in line with the findings on the semantic differential scales. The low esteem group show most interest in girls and girl friends perhaps because they provide a means of enhancing status. However the third esteem level rank neither girls or girl friends but rank parties joint second. Television watching shows a predictable pattern except for the low esteem group. This is possibly caused by the small sub-sample size. Self-esteem group 2 show most affinity for social activities in contrast to the high esteem group who show greater interest in music and reading. The high esteem group also shows most interest in cars and motorcycles in spite of their average age being lower than any other group (16.63 years SD .52). Although difficult to summarize the tables show a trend to greater difficulties with free time with decreasing self-esteem.

TABLE 24

Most Important Free Time Interests
for the Total Sample

Rank	Activity	Percentage
1	Socializing	20.62
2	Reading	15.39
3	T.V. Watching	8.75
4	Music	8.65
5	Parties	6.74
6	Rest	6.44
7	Cars	4.93
8	Listen to Music	4.53
9	Sports	4.43
10	Art	3.92
11	Hobbies	3.02
12	Homework	2.92
13	Study	2.82
14	Help at Home	2.52
15	Working	2.31
16	Sewing	2.01
		100.00
	N = 208	

TABLE 25
Male Free-Time Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self Esteem Level 2			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	Socializing	14.9	1	Socializing	15.2
	Music	12.8	2	Reading	8.8
3	Cars & M.C.'s	12.8	3	Parties	8.4
	Reading	12.8	4	Cars & M.C.'s	7.6
5	Parties	8.5	5.5	T.V.	6.8
	T.V.	6.4		Music	6.8
7	Work	6.4	7	Rest	5.2
	Sports	6.4	8	Study	4.0
9.5	Rest	4.3		Girls	3.6
	Girls	4.3	10	Art	3.6
				Work	3.6
		12.5	Hobbies		3.2
			Sports		3.2
N = 9		N = 42			

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	T.V.	9.9	1	Reading	13.8
	Parties	9.5	2	Rest	8.6
	Socializing	9.5		Girls	6.9
	Reading	8.6	3.5	Socializing	6.9
	Cars & M.C.'s	8.6		T.V.	5.2
6	Music	5.9		Movies	5.2
7	Rest	5.4		Homework	5.2
8	Listen to Music	5.0	8	Fly tying	5.2
				Drinking	5.2
	Sports	4.5		Girl Friend	5.2
	Gain knowledge	4.5		Travel	5.2
11	Homework	3.6		Parties	3.4
12	Movies	3.2		Work	3.4
13	Walk/hike	2.7	14	Do nothing	3.4
				Sports	3.4
15	Dances	2.3		Cycling	3.4
	Hobbies	2.3			
	Recreation, general	2.3			
N = 40		N = 9			

TABLE 26
Male Leisure Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self-Esteem Level 2	
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
1.5	Listen to Music	11.5	1 Sports 25.9
	Recreation, general	11.5	2 Reading 16.9
3.5	Girls	9.6	3 T.V. 13.6
	Parties	9.6	4 Music 11.0
5.5	Rest	7.7	5 Rest 9.1
	Sports	7.7	6 Socializing 5.8
7.5	Socializing	5.8	7 Cars & M.C.'s 4.5
	Downhill Skiing	5.8	8 Girls 3.9
	T.V.	3.8	9.5 Organizing projects 3.2
	Hobbies	3.8	Recreation 3.2
	Golf	3.8	11 Homework 2.6
11.5	Eating	3.8	
	Do Nothing	3.8	
	Cycling	3.8	
N = 9		N = 35	

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4	
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
1	T.V.	16.4	1 Sports 25.0
2	Sports	12.7	2 Socializing 15.9
3	Reading	9.0	3 Athletics 13.6
4	Rest	7.5	4 Listen to Music 9.1
5	Socializing	6.0	5 Hobbies 6.8
6.5	Parties	4.5	6 T.V. 4.6
	Cars & M.C.'s	4.5	7 Parties 4.6
8.5	Listen to Music	3.7	8.5 Girls 4.6
	Movies	3.7	Golf 4.6
11.5	Golf	3.0	Recreation 4.6
	Recreation	3.0	12 Movies 4.6
	Walk/hike	3.0	Rest 2.3
	Homework	3.0	
	Music	2.2	
	Girls	2.2	
15.5	Hobbies	2.2	
	Girl friend	2.2	
N = 23		N = 8	

TABLE 27
Male Recreation Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self-Esteem Level 2			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	Downhill skiing	15.5	1	Sports	15.0
2	Football	12.7	2	Hockey	13.1
3.5	Hockey	8.5	3	Football	12.0
	Sports, general	8.5	4	Downhill skiing	11.7
5.5	Camping	5.6	5	Camping	7.9
	Walk/hike	5.6	6	Basketball	3.8
	Cycling	4.2	7	Golf	3.4
8	Skating	4.2	8	Parties	2.6
	Driving	4.2	10.5	Walk/hike	2.3
				Soccer	2.3
				Fishing	2.3
				Riding	2.3
N = 12		N = 25			

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	Sports, general	16.3	Badminton	10.5	
2	Downhill skiing	10.7	2	Swimming	10.5
3	Golf	7.9	Fishing	10.5	
4	Hockey	7.4	5.5	Hockey	8.8
5.5	Football	5.6	Football	8.8	
	Walk/hike	5.6	Downhill skiing	8.8	
7	Camping	5.1	Sports, general	8.8	
8	Swimming	4.2	9	Hunting	5.3
9.5	Basketball	3.7	Vacation trips	5.3	
	Water ski	3.7	Motorcycling	5.3	
11.5	Cycling	2.8	12	Golf	3.5
	Motorcycling	2.8	Bowling	3.5	
13	Skating	2.3	Chess	3.5	
14.5	Baseball	1.9			
	Pool	1.9			
N = 43		N = 14			

The leisure interests shown in Table 26 show a somewhat different picture. Clearly leisure is associated with recreation and sports. However self-esteem group 3 still place television as the first choice while the other groups place sports or recreation first. Leisure does appear to be a slightly more organized concept than free time. Girls and girl-friends appear to be a leisure activity except for the low esteem group who consider them to be free time interests.

Recreation interests, on the other hand, show considerable differences across the four groups, as shown in Table 27. The low esteem group's activities are predominantly solitary or with a minimum of other participants. Downhill skiing, which can be considered to be a social activity, shows a consistent decrease in popularity with level of esteem. Walking, hiking and camping are not mentioned at all by the low esteem group.

Females

Females show greater affinity for socializing than males and is the first ranked interest for all groups. Table 28 also shows that females have a greater interest in intellectual pursuits than males evidenced by the consistently higher rankings for music, discussion and art. An anomaly occurs in that study and gaining knowledge is mentioned by middle esteem males and not at all by females.

Leisure interests (Table 29) for females tend to be a little more intellectual than free time interests. This is shown by the generally higher scores for art, music and reading. Apart from this slight trend there are no other explicable trends in leisure interests.

Recreation interests (Table 30) not surprisingly, show considerable differences from males and also across the esteem groups. Walking/

TABLE 28
Female Free-Time Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self-Esteem Level 2	
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
1	Socializing	19.7	1 Socializing
2	Reading	18.3	2 Reading
3	Sewing	7.0	3 Music
4.5	Rest	5.6	4 Rest
	Art	5.6	5 Sports
	Music	4.2	6 Listen to Music
	Discussion	4.2	7 Parties
9	Sports	4.2	8.5 T.V.
	Cooking	4.2	Art
	Boyfriend	4.2	10 Help at home
	Drama	4.2	11 Sewing
	Travel	4.2	13 Hobbies
			13 Homework
			Study

N = 13

N = 44

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4	
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
1	Socializing	22.1	1 Socializing
2	Reading	18.5	2 Writing
3	T.V.	9.9	3 Reading
4	Music	8.6	4 T.V.
5	Rest	4.5	5 Music
6.5	Listen to Music	3.2	6 Art
	Sewing	3.2	7 Hobbies
8.5	Art	2.7	8 Listen to Music
	Help at Home	2.7	9 Recreation, general
10	Recreation, general	2.3	10 Parties
	Work	1.8	11 Dances
12	Homework	1.8	12 Riding
	Shopping	1.8	13 Babysitting

N = 36

N = 15

TABLE 29

Female Leisure Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self-Esteem Level 2			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	Socializing	21.6	1	Reading	17.6
2.5	Reading	11.8	2.5	Socializing	10.6
	Listen to Music	11.8		Recreation, general	10.6
4.5	Sports	9.8	4	Sports	7.0
	Rest	9.8		Rest	6.3
6.5	Music	7.8	5.5	Music	6.3
	Sewing	7.8		T.V.	4.9
8.5	Cheerleading	5.9	7.5	Downhill skiing	4.9
	Help at Home	5.9		Study	4.2
10	Athletics	3.9			
N = 9		N = 26			

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4			
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent		
1	Socializing	15.3	1	T.V.	18.6
2	Reading	14.6	2	Reading	12.9
3	Listen to Music	8.3		Rest	10.0
4	Music	7.6	3.5	Socializing	10.0
5	T.V.	6.9			
6.5	Dances	44.9	5	Parties	5.7
	Movies	4.9		Dances	4.3
8	Recreation, general	4.2		Riding	4.3
9.5	Athletics	3.5	9	Art	4.3
	Writing	3.5		Golf	4.3
				Sports	4.3
				Keep Fit	4.3
				Bowling	4.3
N = 25		N = 12			

TABLE 30
Female Recreation Interests

Self-Esteem Level 1		Percent	Self-Esteem Level 2		Percent
Rank			Rank		
1	Walk/hike	19.5	1	Sports, general	14.3
2	Sports, general	18.2	2	Downhill skiing	10.7
3	Camping	9.1	3	Cycling	9.0
4	Dancing	7.8	4	Walk/hike	8.2
	Downhill skiing	6.5	5	Swimming	7.8
6	Tennis	6.5	6.5	Basketball	4.5
	Riding	6.5		Dancing	4.5
	Canoeing	3.9	8	Parties	4.1
9.5	Cross country skiing	3.9	9	Skating	3.7
	Skating	3.9	10	Tennis	3.3
	Parties	3.9	11.5	Football	2.9
				Vacation trips	2.9

N = 14

N = 48

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4	
Rank	Percent	Rank	Percent
1	Downhill skiing	17.7	1.5
2	Sports, general	13.9	Cycling
3	Swimming	12.0	Basketball
4	Dancing	6.7	Parties
5.5	Walk/hike	6.2	Jogging
	Skating	6.2	
7	Badminton	4.8	Walk/hike
8	Parties	3.3	Sports, general
	Football	2.9	Movies
10	Cycling	2.9	Vacation trips
	Driving	2.9	
		13	Baseball
			Badminton
			Dancing
			Downhill skiing
			Soccer
			Bowling
			Skydiving

hiking shows a steady decline with esteem from first rank with the high esteem group. Camping, ranked third by the high esteem group is not mentioned by any other. The low esteem group show a large number of what could be considered male dominated activities including football, baseball, soccer and basketball. It is not clear whether these were participatory or spectator activities. Also noticeable are the number of relatively inactive choices mentioned including parties, movies and vacation trips.

Table 31 shows the total sample free time interests for males and females. This illustrates more clearly the intellectual emphasis with females with music, art, hobbies, writing, study and homework in the top 15 choices. Males show a greater affinity for parties, girls in general and girlfriends. This again supports the findings of Brookes and Elliot (1971).

The total sample leisure interests, Table 32, show clearer sex differences. For males, leisure is sports oriented while reading is the most popular female leisure pursuit. With both sexes there appears to be a dichotomous view of leisure in that extremes of activity tend to be preferred. Also, a certain amount of planning appears to be required for some activities. When it is considered that only a small amount of free time is leisure then it can be seen that for some this represents a special part of free time. For example, apart from sports which are a little vague, female leisure interests include general recreation, athletics and boyfriends, all activities that require a certain amount of planning. In contrast are the 'do nothing' activities such as rest, television watching and listening to music. There is, therefore, some evidence to suggest that for females

TABLE 31
Male and Female Free Time Interests

Rank	Male	Percent	Female		Percent
			Rank	Percent	
1	Socializing	16.6	1	Socializing	26.1
2	Reading	13.5	2	Reading	18.4
3	T.V.	11.37	3	Music	9.7
4	Parties	10.7	4	T.V.	7.9
5	Cars & M.C.'s	10.4	5	Rest	6.4
6	Music	8.1	6	Art	5.0
7	Rest	7.4	7	Listen to Music	4.5
8	Sports	5.5	8	Sports	4.1
10	Girls, in general	2.8	9.5	Parties	3.7
	Work	2.8		Help at home	3.7
	Girlfriend	2.8	11	Sewing	2.7
			12	Hobbies	2.3
			13	Writing	2.1
			14.5	Study	1.7
				Homework	1.7
	N = 100			N = 108	

TABLE 32
Male and Female Leisure Interests

Rank	Male	Percent	Female		Percent
			Rank	Percent	
1	Sports	26.2	1	Reading	20.1
2	T.V.	16.1	2	Socializing	18.1
3	Reading	9.5	3	T.V.	9.9
4	Rest	9.1		Music	8.2
5	Socializing	8.4	5	Sports	8.2
6	Parties	5.8		Rest	8.2
7	Listen to music	5.5	7	Listen to music	6.6
	Music	4.4	8	Recreation, general	5.9
8.5	Recreation, general	4.4	9	Dances	4.3
	Girls	3.3	10	Movies	3.6
11	Athletics	3.3		Help at home	3.0
	Cars & M.C.'s	3.3	12	Boyfriend	3.0
				Athletics	3.0
	N = 75			N = 72	

leisure is either a special activity requiring a certain amount of planning or a rest period. This also appears to hold true for males who show a dichotomy between the first ranked sports and television watching, reading and rest.

Needs

To present the results responses are dichotomised into very important and not important groups for each need. Table 33 shows the results for the total sample. (See Appendix B question 37 for description of needs.)

TABLE 33

Importance of Needs, Total Sample

	Very Important Percent	Not Important Percent	Neulinger, (1974) Mensa Norm, rank	
1 Affiliation	83.4	16.6	6	1
2 Succorance	82.1	17.8	-	-
3 Achievement	75.2	24.8	4	4
4 Activity	72.1	27.9	8.5	7.5
5 Autonomy	70.4	29.6	3	5
6 Nurturance	69.3	30.7	8.5	6
7 Sentience	64.3	35.7	2	2
8 Order	56.5	43.4	7	9
9 Understanding	50.6	49.3	1	3

The preeminence of socializing among the activities previously discussed could result from the high need for affiliation and succorance. Needs for order and understanding are both indicative of greater maturity and relatively unimportant for adolescents. In the

Neulinger (1974) report, from which this group of needs were derived, the norm group of employed adults and the high intelligence Mensa group scored somewhat differently. The Mensa group ranked understanding highest and nurturance and activity lowest while the norm group scored affiliation highest and order lowest. Table 34 shows that greater differences occur when the sample is broken down on the basis of self-esteem. Clearly there is no relationship between level of esteem and

TABLE 34

Self-Esteem and Rank Ordering of Needs

Self-Esteem Level 1		Self-Esteem Level 2	
1	Autonomy	1	Achievement
2.5	Succorance	2	Affiliation
	Activity	3	Activity
4	Affiliation	4	Autonomy
5	Sentience	5	Succorance
6	Achievement	6	Sentience
7	Nurturance	7	Nurturance
8	Order	8	Order
9	Understanding	9	Understanding

Self-Esteem Level 3		Self-Esteem Level 4	
1	Achievement	1	Succorance
2	Succorance	2	Autonomy
3	Affiliation	3.5	Achievement
4	Autonomy		Affiliation
5	Activity	5	Activity
6	Order	6	Nurturance
7	Sentience	7	Sentience
8	Nurturance	8.5	Order
9	Understanding		Understanding

need for understanding which is uniformly low unlike the Neulinger (1974) sample. However sentience shows a decreasing rank with self-esteem

perhaps linked to a reduced ability for self-expression. The premier ranking of autonomy by those with high self-esteem must be indicative of a need to break away from an integrated family life in spite of the beneficial effects on self-esteem. The high rankings for succorance and affiliation are also unexpected and may show that these needs are important for this age group irrespective of the quality of family life.

The pattern for need for achievement is less surprising in view of the links between scholastic performance and self-esteem. The middle levels of esteem rank achievement first and those with low self-esteem have a lower desire to achieve. The high need for succorance with low self-esteem possibly reflects difficulties in family life and ranking autonomy second may also be due to this cause. The high ranking of autonomy by those with high and low esteem may, therefore, be due to a desire to break from a satisfactory family life, on the one hand and an unsatisfactory life on the other.

Although these results are quite interesting the implications for planning are slight if the importance or indifference to various needs are not expressed in differences in behavior. The results are presented using only the most popular fifteen activities, because beyond this figure activities were mentioned by only one individual (Tables 35 - 43). Table 35 shows the activities reported by those with a high and low need for affiliation. The succeeding tables present the results for the other needs in descending order of importance. As with other lists of activities the results are the percentage of the weighted sums of the three choices of each activity. Spearman rank order correlation tests show that none of the differences between high and low importance for needs are statistically significant at the

.05 level. However, as previously suggested, differences in rank and percentages may be relatively important. The most notable features about the results are the differences in placement of reading and television. The majority who show a high need for affiliation rank television third while those with a low need for affiliation rank television 9.5. It is possible that the high need group view television to provide satisfaction through identification with personalities or various shows. For the low need group, television appears to have a different role as either a time filler or for informational purposes although the actual differences are open to conjecture. A similar difficulty of interpretation exists with reading because it is most likely that the content will be different for the two groups.

Apart from these problems it can be clearly seen that the low need group show a higher ranking for reading, study, art, organizing projects, electronics and walking. They also have a lower ranking for socializing, parties, rest, listening to music, sports and a similar ranking for music and cars. Overall, the low need group shows less need to be with people and appear to derive satisfactions from individuals and self-generated pursuits. Also notable is the mention of friend of opposite sex by the high need group while the low need group only mention girls; a less personal or demanding form of relationship.

Succorance shows a very similar pattern as do the patterns for other needs. These results are similar to those in the study by Tinsley, Barrett and Kass (1977) where many different needs are satisfied by the same activities. Substitution of activities, rather than differences in ranking of the same activities only occur below the

fifth rank. It seems highly likely that differences in socializing, reading and television watching are important and are being masked by the general nature of the questions asked and the answers received.

TABLE 35

Activities Associated with High and Low Needs for Affiliation

	Per-Cent	Very Important	Not Important	Per-Cent	Very Important	Not Important	Per-Cent	Very Important	Not Important	Per-Cent
1 Socializing	17.4	1	Reading	20.1	1	Socializing	18.8	1	Reading	13.4
2 Reading	11.4	2	Socializing	13.4	2	Reading	12.5	2	Socializing	9.4
3 Television	7.7	3	Study	9.1	3	Television	7.0	3	Music	8.9
4 Music	6.8	4	Music	8.5	4	Music	6.6	4	Television	8.0
5 Parties	5.8	5	Art	4.9	5	Rest	5.6	5	Study	6.7
6 Rest	5.7	6	Organizing projects	4.3	6	Parties	5.3	6	Parties	5.8
7 Cars	4.0	6.5	Cars	4.3	7	Sports	4.2	7	Cars	4.9
8.5 Listen to music	3.7	3.7	Television	3.7	8.5	Listen to music	3.9	8.5	Rest	4.0
9 Sports			Parties	3.7	10	Art	3.9	8.5	Work	4.0
10 Art	2.9	9.5	Listen to music	3.7	10	Art	3.4	10	Girls	3.6
11 Hobbies	2.7	2.7	Electronics/Hifi	3.7	11.5	Hobbies	2.6	11	Listen to music	3.1
12 Homework	2.6	2.6	Homework	2.4	13	Help at home	2.6	12.5	Art	2.7
13 Help at Home	2.3	2.3	Rest	2.4	2.4	Help at home	2.2	2.4	Walk/hike	2.7
14 Work	2.0	13	Girls	2.4	14	Friend of opposite sex	2.2	2.4	Dances	2.2
15 Friend of opposite sex	1.8		Walk/hike	2.4			1.6	15.5	Organizing projects	2.2
									Discussion	1.5
									Recreation	1.5
									Sewing	1.5
										N = 327
										N = 65
										N = 322
										N = 70

TABLE 36

Activities Associated with High and Low Needs for Succorance

	Per-Cent	Very Important	Not Important	Per-Cent	Very Important	Not Important	Per-Cent
1 Socializing	20.1	1	Socializing	18.8	1	Reading	13.4
2 Reading	13.4	2	Reading	12.5	2	Socializing	9.4
3 Television	9.1	3	Television	7.0	3	Music	8.9
4 Music	8.5	4	Music	6.6	4	Television	8.0
5 Parties	4.9	5	Rest	5.6	5	Study	6.7
6 Rest	5.7	6	Parties	5.3	6	Parties	5.8
7 Cars	4.0	6.5	Sports	4.2	7	Cars	4.9
8.5 Listen to music	3.7	3.7	Cars	4.3	8.5	Listen to music	3.9
9 Sports			Television	3.7		Cars	3.9
10 Art	2.9	9.5	Parties	3.7	10	Art	3.4
11 Hobbies	2.7	2.7	Listen to music	3.7	10	Art	3.4
12 Homework	2.6	2.6	Electronics/Hifi	3.7	11.5	Hobbies	2.6
13 Help at Home	2.3	2.3	Homework	2.4	13	Help at home	2.6
14 Work	2.0	13	Girls	2.4	14	Friend of opposite sex	2.2
15 Friend of opposite sex	1.8		Walk/hike	2.4			1.6
							15.5
							Organizing projects
							Discussion
							Recreation
							Sewing
							N = 322
							N = 70

TABLE 38

Activities Associated with High and Low Needs for Achievement

Very Important	Per-Cent	Per-Cent
	Cent	Cent
1 Socializing	17.3	1
2 Reading	11.2	2
3 Music	7.7	3
4 Television	7.5	4
5 Parties	6.2	5
6 Cars	4.6	
7 Listen to music	4.5	6.5
8 Rest	4.1	Sports
9 Sports	3.7	
10 Art	3.2	8.5
11 Homework	3.0	Girls
12 Help at home	2.5	3.2
13 Study	2.5	Hobbies
14 Homework	2.3	3.0
15 Discussion	1.8	14
		Work
		18.3
		16.8
		9.5
		6.6
		5.5
		3.7
		3.7
		3.3
		3.3
		2.6
		2.6
		2.6
		2.2
		2.2

Activities Associated with High and Low Needs for Activity

Very Important	Per-Cent	Not Important	Per-Cent	
Socializing	15.9	1	Socializing	20.0
Reading	12.0	2	Reading	13.8
Television	8.3	3	Music	6.5
Music	7.4	4	Rest	5.9
Parties	5.6	5	Parties	5.6
Rest	5.1	6	Sports	5.0
Cars	4.2			
Listen to music	3.6	7.5	Television	4.7
Art	3.2	Study	4.7	
Sports	3.1			
Homework	2.8	9.5	Hobbies	4.1
Help at home	2.1		Listen to music	4.1
Work	2.0	11	Cars	3.8
Dances	1.8	12	Arts	3.2
Friend of opposite sex	1.8	13	Electronics/ HiFi	2.6
		14.5	Girls	2.0
			Help at home	2.0
			N = 109	
			N = 282	

$$N = 109$$

$$N = 282$$

TABLE 39
Activities Associated with
Low Needs for Autonomy

Very Important	Per Cent	Per Cent	Not Important	Per Cent
Socializing	19.0	1	Reading	16.9
Reading	10.0	2	Socializing	13.3
Television	7.1	3	Music	8.5
Music	6.7	4	Television	7.9
Parties	6.0	5	Art	7.1
Rest	5.7		Rest	4.8
Cars	4.9	6.5	Parties	4.8
Listen to music	3.7			
Sports	3.6	8	Study	4.5
Hobbies	2.8	9	Work	4.2
Help at home	2.2			
Homework	2.0	10.5	Listen to music	3.9
Dances	1.9	12	Sports	3.9
Recreation	1.9		Homework	3.4
Friend of opposite sex	1.9	13.5	Cars	2.3
			Sewing	2.3
			Hobbies	2.0
			Help at home	2.0
				N = 276
				N = 115

TABLE 40

Very Important	Per Cent	Per Cent	Not Important	Per Cent
1 Socializing	17.2	1	Socializing	17.4
2 Reading	13.6	2	Reading	11.0
3 Television	7.5	3	Parties	8.2
4 Music	7.2	4	Television	7.7
5 Rest	5.4	5	Music	7.2
6 Parties	4.3		Rest	
7 Sports	4.2		Listen to music	5.1
8 Cars	3.6	7.5	Cars	5.1
9 Hobbies	3.3		Study	5.1
10.5 Art	3.1	10	Art	3.6
		11	Sports	2.6
12 Help at home	2.6			
13 Homework	2.5	12.5	Dances	2.3
14 Sewing	2.1		Homework	2.3
15.5 Discussion	1.9	14.5	Organizing	2.1
Work	1.9		projects	
			Work	2.1
				N = 120
				N = 271

TABLE 41
Activities Associated with High
Low Needs for Sentience

	Very Important	Per Cent	Per Cent	Not Important	Per Cent
1	Socializing	17.4	1	Socializing	16.1
2	Reading	11.1	2	Reading	15.9
3	Music	8.6	3	Television	7.3
4	Television	7.1	4	Parties	5.8
5	Rest	5.2	5	Rest	5.5
6	Sports	4.3		Music	4.0
7	Cars	4.1	6.5	Cars	4.0
8	Art	3.9			
9	Listen to music	3.8	8.5	Listen to music	3.5
10	Hobbies	3.4		Help at home	3.5
11	Friend of opposite sex	2.1	10.5	Homework	3.3
12	Homework	2.0		Study	3.3
13	Study	1.8	12	Sewing	3.0
14.5	Discussion	1.6		Girls	2.8
	Recreation	1.6	14	Work	2.8
				Sports	2.8

TABLE 42

Very Important	Per Cent	Not Important	Per Cent
Socializing	16.5	1	19.7
Reading	13.0	2	13.8
Music	7.7		
Television	7.1	3.5	8.2
Rest	5.1		8.2
Sports	4.8	5	
Cars	4.4	6	7.2
Parties	4.1		6.2
Art	3.8	7.5	
Listen to music	3.8	9	4.1
Hobbies	3.6	10	
Homework	3.5	11	2.9
Help at home	2.4	12	2.5
Friend of opposite sex	2.4	13.5	2.3
Work	2.1	Help at home	1.8
		Girls	1.8
		Work	1.4
		Sewing	1.4
		Travel	1.4
		Movies	1.4
			N = 170
			N = 221

TABLE 43

Activities Associated with High and Low
Needs for Understanding

	Very Important	Percent		Not Important	Percent
1	Socializing	17.4	1	Socializing	17.7
2	Reading	14.5	2	Reading	11.7
3	Music	8.7	3	Television	9.6
	Television	5.3	4	Parties	7.9
	Sports	5.3			
6	Listen to music	4.8	5	Cars	6.2
7	Study	4.3	6	Music	6.0
8	Art	4.1	7	Rest	5.7
	Rest	3.6	8	Listen to music	2.9
9.5	Parties	3.6			
			9.5	Work	2.7
11	Homework	3.1		Hobbies	2.7
			11	Art	2.6
12.5	Hobbies	2.4		Sports	2.2
	Sewing	2.4	12.5	Help at Home	2.2
14	Cars	2.2			
15	Help at home	2.0	14.5	Girls	1.9
				Homework	1.9

N = 198

N = 193

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The aims in this thesis have been several whilst the main purpose is to demonstrate the utility of self-esteem in geography and leisure planning. Subjects for the study were 391 grade 11 and 12 students in Edmonton Public and Separate high schools, non-randomly sampled. Despite non-random sampling and several other difficulties the results of this exploratory study allow a number of conclusions to be drawn. Before discussing the conclusions the results are summarised under headings provided by the four hypothesis presented earlier.

Summary of Results

Hypothesis 1. The level of self-esteem in adolescents effects their use of space.

There are major differences between the high and low esteem groups in their use of space. The lower esteem groups prefer low risk, often solitary, home based urban activities in contrast with the higher esteem groups who can deal with higher risk activities in a non-urban setting with larger numbers of people.

Hypothesis 2. Leisure interests are effected by the level of self-esteem.

The higher esteem groups prefer socializing and demonstrate a large range of interests, have more friends and are prepared to participate in clubs in contrast to the lower esteem groups who prefer

more solitary activities and tend to watch more television. The lower esteem groups also prefer non-team sports with a minimum of opponents and low risk activities in an urban setting.

Hypothesis 3. Difficulties with free time increase with decreasing self-esteem.

Results show that difficulties do increase with decreasing self-esteem. Not only does the low esteem group have difficulty with choice but also has less satisfaction with what they do choose. Difficulties are increased because the lower esteem groups prefer to be at home alone rather than with their family and when outside the home are less social and participate less in clubs. The low esteem group also have fewer friends and those they do have tend to be unemployed creating difficulties for themselves and possibly for society as well.

Hypothesis 4. Childhood socialization is an important contributor to the level of self-esteem.

The most important finding here is the lack of association between self-esteem and social class as measured by the Blishen Index. However the main use for the background variables was for comparison with other self-esteem studies and results showed that the global measure used here did measure self-esteem.

Other Results

The sections on semantic differentials and needs are the main areas of interest. The semantic differential for self shows that while the low esteem group feel themselves to be as good and honest as others they are more disciplined and tense and generally less adequate in other areas. However there is an almost common conception of ideal self and

recreation while leisure and free time show greater difficulties for the lower esteem groups.

The dominance of socializing among free time activities is partially explained by the analysis of needs, which show that affiliation and succorance to be the most important. Of potentially greater use is the analysis based on high and low importance of a particular need. An example is provided by affiliation where the low need group show greater preference for intellectual pursuits in contrast to the high need group who rank socializing, television and parties highly. However, considerable refinement is needed before even this method of analysing needs produces less cumbersome results.

Implications of the Research

This study has clearly shown that self-esteem is a concept of considerable use to geographers and planners. The exploratory nature of the research has tended to sacrifice depth for breadth which means that the results are rather less precise than is desirable. Therefore it is necessary to discuss the implications of the study in general terms.

Implications for Geography

In a recent review Golledge et al., (1972) suggested that contemporary geography appears to be more and more concerned with understanding why certain activities take place rather than what patterns they produce in space. The emphasis on explanation is expected to help researchers to modify and rebuild geographic theory on the basis of a variety of postulates relating to human behavior. (Golledge et al., 1977).

The authors then outline five areas of geographic importance where the 'behavioral' approach has utility. These are, Decision making and choice behavior, Information spread, Search and learning, Political

behavior and Perception. The analysis has already shown that self-esteem effects decision making and choice behavior in leisure and there is no reason to believe that effects in other areas will be dissimilar. Information spread and search and learning behavior will also be effected by self-esteem through its effects on risk taking and the numbers and types of friends. Although the links between politics and personality are well known (Di Renzo, 1974) this study was not concerned with links between self-esteem and politics. Presumably the effects of esteem on decision making and search and learning behavior will have application to political geography studies.

Self-esteem has more obvious implications for perception studies. The lack of association between perception and social class which plagued early studies (Golledge et al., 1972) is explained in this study which shows that social class and socialization are only weakly related. As much of geographic research has depended upon social differentiation this result alone shows that alternative social parameters may have to be used in future. Results from this study also show why studies using mental mapping or photographs to elicit perception preferences are open to alternate interpretation. It is possible that results do not relate to behavior because the perception requires no interaction with the environment being studied. For example, a low esteem group may evaluate photographs in ways which are similar to a high esteem group. But if the photographs are of ski areas or wilderness actual behavior is very different and the similarities in preference are due to some other variable such as aesthetics.

Implications for Planning

For a 'new culture,' or leisure society, to develop Rapoport and Rapoport suggest that changes are required at "an institutional level involving the restructuring and redirecting of social institutions and at the level of individual character and motivation" (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975). This study has shown that self-esteem has considerable utility by identifying the types of change required. Although this study, like many others, shows that the most important adolescent free time activity is socializing planners still appear to place greater emphasis on active recreation.

A lack of facilities for socializing appear to be manifest in Edmonton with shopping malls being used for non consumer social purposes (Adams, 1978). The facilities provided at the schools sampled partially explain why adolescents find shopping malls preferable places to socialize. Without exception social rooms at schools were smoke filled, windowless and devoid of furniture. Where rooms were not provided groups stood or lounged in corridors or around entrances. The problems would not be solved by the provision of better social areas for, unless school boards changed their attitudes to adolescents, they would be closed after school or subject to various other restrictions concerning their use and care.

Clubs and community organizations are a more prevalent institutional response to the provision of facilities for socialization. Typically these are run to provide activities to fill blocks of time and do not really further leisure. However, this study has shown that these and school facilities will be used less by the very people having the greatest difficulties with free time. Also the higher esteem

groups have less need of the organized club because they appear to be able to organize free time for their own benefit.

The study has also highlighted other areas requiring social rather than physical planning. The most fundamental unit involved is the family and family problems are reflected in lower self-esteem and difficulties with free time. A high percentage of free time is spent at home, not because of lack of outside facilities, but because it is convenient and should provide a good stable family base which "facilitates meaningful interest development for all members" (Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975). Self-esteem studies should allow more accurate assessment of sources of difficulties producing low esteem and also insights into the means to alter socialization.

Socialization is greatly effected by the school system and here again the identification of various personality types would allow better identification of problems and more suitable remedial measures. The school systems will also have to increasingly educate for leisure though this will result from institutional change and is outside the scope of this study. Education for leisure may also reduce the intolerance of adults toward adolescents in shopping malls which do seem to be suitable places for people to socialize in.

Conclusion

Self-esteem has been shown to have important implications for geography and planning. Level of self-esteem does appear to affect spatial behavior, decision making ability and the types of environments preferred by individuals. At a time of increasing social homogeneity self-esteem may provide an alternative means of discrimination on

which to base social research. In planning the use of self-esteem may allow better identification of needs and the provision of improved facilities more suited to a leisure society. More sensitive programs of social change may be possible through the use of self-esteem studies which identify more clearly the problem areas in society.

However the general nature of the results in this study leave a number of queries concerning the value of self-esteem. This may be a desirable feature for it should encourage others to produce better, more penetrating applied studies by building on this tentative exploratory study. The presentation of a 'fait accompli' may only have discouraged others from investigating other, possibly more useful, areas of personality.

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APPENDIX A

SELF-ESTEEM MEASUREMENT

The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale is a ten item Guttman Scale which is intended to be unidimensional and cumulative. Although unidimensional scales are not often used for self-esteem measurement the Rosenberg scale is widely used and shows, unlike some scales available, a close relationship with other scales purporting to measure self-esteem (Wells and Marwell, 1976).

Guttman scales must have several properties. They must be unidimensional, that is, they must measure movement to or from a single underlying object, in this case self-esteem. Secondly, the scales must be cumulative where the component items may be ordered in degree of difficulty. Respondents who respond positively to the most difficult item must respond positively to the successively easier items. In practice responses seldom form a perfectly cumulative scale due to poor organization and inconsistent responses by respondents. Therefore, it is necessary to evaluate the scales to find out if they meet the requirements of Guttman scaling within acceptable limits.

The S.P.S.S. Guttman scale program (Nie et al., 1975) used here provides four statistics to aid evaluation. The Coefficient of reproducibility is a measure of the extent to which a respondents' scale score is a predictor of their response pattern. It varies between 0 and 1 and is 1 minus the total number of errors divided by the total

number of responses. To be valid the scale should have a coefficient of responsibility higher than .9.

The minimum marginal reproducibility is the minimum coefficient of reproducibility that could have occurred given the division points used and the proportion of respondents passing or failing each of the items. The difference between the coefficient of reproducibility and the minimum marginal reproducibility indicates the extent to which the former is due to response patterns rather than inherent cumulative interrelation of the variables used. This difference is called the Percent improvement and is merely the difference between the above two percents.

The final measure is obtained by dividing the percent improvement by the difference between 1 and the minimum marginal reproducibility. The denominator represents the largest value that the percent improvement may attain and the resulting ratio is called the coefficient of scalability. The coefficient varies from 0 to 1 and should be above .6 if the scale is truly unidimensional and cumulative (Nie et al., 1975).

Evaluation of the six scales used in the study are shown below. Results are generally worse than those obtained by Rosenberg (1965) and the faith in people scale was excluded from further analysis. It may have been possible to improve these scores by altering the division points used in evaluation. Also, the program was allowed to order the scales and it is possible that if the Rosenberg sequence from easy to difficult had been imposed on evaluation results would have differed. It is not clear if manipulations of this type are more or less valid

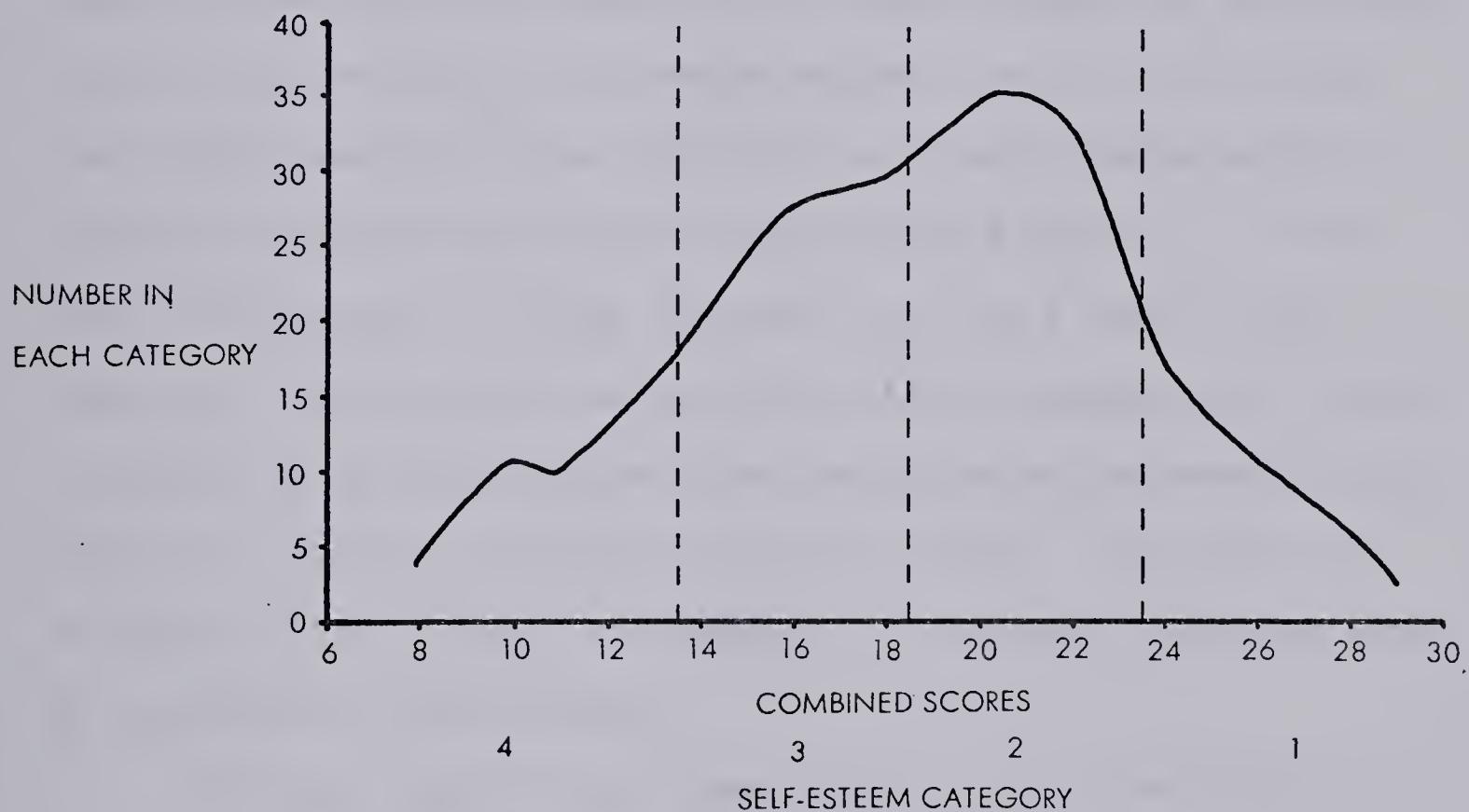
than the first solutions obtained. The actual effect on the score of an individual would be small. It should be noted that the original 'Faith in people' scale used by Rosenberg was marginal and should have been modified at that time.

	Rosenberg			
	Coefficient or Repro- ducibility	Coefficient of Scalability	Coefficient or Repro- ducibility	Coefficient of Scalability
Self-esteem	.92	.62	.93	.72
Faith in people	.85	.45	.90	.60
Sensitivity to Criticism	.99	.98	.90	.96
Depressive Effect	.92	.61	.95	.75
Daydreaming	.95	.81	.96	.85
Stability of self	.90	.59	.94	.77

With one exception the scales are acceptable and it is necessary to decid upon a suitable method of use. The graph below shows the



distribution of scores for self-esteem. This follows the pattern advocated by Rosenberg where the majority will have high self-esteem. In view of the small sample the six categories could be reduced in number. Various schemes were tried and are outlined below. An alternative form of classification suggests itself arising from the problems encountered by Kaplan (). In that study it appeared that adolescents could have too high a level of self-esteem due to misperception.



To examine this effect a scale was produced by combining the five usable scales. There is no a priori way of knowing how these scales should be combined or if some of the scales should be weighted to alter their effect on total scores. Therefore the daydreaming and criticism scales were weighted by X1.5 and X2 respectively to carry the same weight as the depression and self-esteem scales. The stability of self scale, ranging from 0 - 5 was unweighted due to the difficulties of expanding this by a factor of 1.2. As a result of the combining and

weighting an individual could score between a low of 0 and a high of

29. The distribution of scores is shown below. It is necessary to subdivide this scale to produce a manageable number of categories. The fourfold division was eventually settled upon after many trial and error approximations. This was done by comparing all the results obtained based on the six-point self-esteem scale with various categories and the combined scale with various categories. The criteria for final choice was consistency across the categories. For example, if the lowest esteem group had proportion X of some attribute the successively higher categories should have proportionately more of the attribute. The combined scale with four categories was finally chosen because it provided fewest discrepancies from the predicted patterns. As this scale was designed to include those with too high a level of self-esteem the simple progression from low to high esteem does not operate. A majority of the discrepancies from the desired pattern are explicable though in a number of instances no pattern emerges. It is not clear if these are due to sampling inadequacies giving small sub-sample sizes or the method of classification.

The four categories have been labelled 1 to 4 from highest to lowest self-esteem. This means that level two is the average category in this system.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

1.

1. Can you fill in the name of the school, Please.

_____ (1)
 _____ (2,3)
 _____ (4)
 _____ (5)

2. What program are you in. _____

3. Below are sixteen 7 - point scales each referring to a word pair. Use these scales to describe what your free time means to you. The scale points indicate the following:

- 1 = extremely
- 2 = quite
- 3 = slightly
- 4 = neutral or unrelated
- 5 = slightly
- 6 = quite
- 7 = extremely

Put a mark at that point on the scale which best describes what free time means to you.

For example, if the word pair is

beautiful 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 ugly

and you feel that free time is "quite" beautiful, then you would check 2 on the scale; on the other hand, if you feel that free time is extremely ugly, you would have checked 7 on the scale.

WORD PAIRS

FREE TIME IS

boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	interesting	(6)
solitary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sociable	(7)
honest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	dishonest	(8x)
desirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	undesirable	(9x)
unnecessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	necessary	(10)
powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerless	(11x)
meaningful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	meaningless	(12x)
inactive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	active	(13)
satisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unsatisfying	(14x)
good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	bad	(15x)
tiring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	refreshing	(16)
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant	(17x)
disciplined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	free	(18)
happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sad	(19x)
tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	relaxed	(20)
mysterious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	understandable	(21)

2.

4. Below are listed a number of statements. Indicate your own position on each of these by using the number of the label which comes closest to your opinion.

LABELS

7..... I agree very strongly.

6..... I agree strongly

5..... I agree moderately

4 I am undecided, uncertain or don't know.

3 I disagree moderately

2 I disagree strongly

1 I disagree very strongly.

a. My personal ambitions can be more fully realized in a job than in my free time..... (22)

b. Very little of my free time is actually leisure..... (23)

c. I would prefer to be famous for something I had done on my job (like an invention) rather than for something I had done in my free time (like crossing the ocean in a row - boat.)..... (24)

d. I always seem to have more things to do than I have time for..... (25)

e. It will be more important for me to be good at my free time activities than at my work activities (26)

f. I have enough leisure..... (27)

g. I would like to have more free time than I have now..... (28)

h. My free time activities express my talents and capabilities better than a job will..... (29)

5. I take a positive attitude toward myself. (30)

1. _____ Strongly agree _____

2. _____ Agree _____

3. _____ Disagree _____

4. _____ Strongly disagree _____

6. I am able to do things as well as most other people.

1. _____ Strongly agree _____

2. _____ Agree _____

3. _____ Disagree _____

4. _____ Strongly disagree _____

3.

7. I feel I do not have much to be proud of. (31)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____

8. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself. (32)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____

9. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others. (33)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____ +

10. I feel that I have a number of good qualities. (34)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____ +
 4. Strongly disagree _____

11. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure. (33)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____

12. I wish I could have more respect for myself. (34)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____

13. I certainly feel useless at times

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____ +
 4. Strongly disagree _____

4.

14. At times, I think I am no good at all. (35)

1. Strongly agree _____
 2. Agree _____
 3. Disagree _____
 4. Strongly disagree _____

15. How much of your free time activities could be called "killing time?" (36 & 37)

Indicate your estimate on the scale below:

'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'.....'
 None 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 All

PERCENT

16. Below are listed a number of free time activities. Using the scale values given, indicate what in your opinion society's position regarding these activities should be.

This activity should be: SCALE VALUES

very strongly encouraged	7
strongly encouraged	6
encouraged	5
neither encouraged nor discouraged	4
discouraged	3
strongly discouraged	2
very strongly discouraged	1

FREE TIME ACTIVITIES SOCIETY SHOULD ENCOURAGE:

- a- activities emphasizing mental endeavors such as studying, taking adult education courses, etc. (38)
- b- activities involving the taking of habit forming drugs..... (39)
- c- activities that consist basically of doing nothing, being idle, "hanging around," etc..... (40)
- d- activities involving active participation in social affairs, such as volunteer work, club activities, etc..... (41)
- e- activities that consist basically of doing nothing, such as writing, painting, or playing an instrument..... (42)
- f- activities involving the consumption of alcohol..... (43)
- g- activities involving productive efforts, such as certain hobbies like woodworking, leather tooling, sewing, etc..... (44)

5.

h- activities involving physical exercise, such as
sports and calisthenics, hunting and fishing,
or just walking..... (45)

17- Below are sixteen 7-point scales each referring to a word pair.
Use these scales to describe yourself.

The scale points indicate the following:

1 = extremely
2 = quite
3 = slightly
4 = neutral or unrelated
5 = slightly
6 = quite
7 = extremely

Put a mark at that point on the scale which best describes yourself. For example, if the word pair is:

beautiful 1 3 4 5 6 7 ugly
and you feel that you are "quite" beautiful, then you would check 2 on the scale; on the other hand, if you feel that you are extremely ugly, then you would have checked 7 on the scale.

WORD PATRS

I AM:

bad	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	good	_____	(55)
free	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	disciplined	_____	(58x)
interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	boring	_____	(46x)
unsatisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	satisfying	_____	(54)
powerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerful	_____	(51)
refreshing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	tiring	_____	(56x)
understandable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	mysterious	_____	(61x)
happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sad	_____	(59x)
active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	inactive	_____	(53x)
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	honest	_____	(48)
necessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unnecessary	_____	(50)
solitary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sociable	_____	(47)
undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	desirable	_____	(49)
meaningless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	meaningful	_____	(52)
unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	pleasant	_____	(57)
relaxed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	tense	_____	(60x)

18. I have noticed that my ideas about myself seem to change very quickly. (62)

1. Agree _____
 2. Disagree _____

19. I feel that nothing, or almost nothing can change the opinion I currently hold of myself. (63)

1. Agree _____
 2. Disagree _____

20. Place a check next to the statement below that best describes the society in which you would want your children to live in. (64)

1. a society where everyone has a life of leisure
 2. a society where the emphasis is on leisure.
 3. a society where the life of work and leisure are balanced.
 4. a society where the emphasis is on work
 5. a society where everyone has a life of work.

21. Some days I have a very good opinion of myself; other days I have a very poor opinion of myself. (65)

1. Agree _____
 2. Disagree _____

22. Does your opinion of yourself tend to change a good deal, or does it always continue to remain the same? (66)

1. Changes a great deal _____
 2. Changes somewhat _____
 3. Changes very little _____
 4. Does not change at all _____

23. Do you ever find that on one day you have one opinion of yourself and on another day you have a different opinion? (67)

1. Yes, this happens often _____
 2. Yes, this happens sometimes _____
 3. Yes, this rarely happens _____
 4. No, this never happens. _____

24. If you were to divide your time into two parts; one work time and the other free time- how much time would you want for each? (68&69)

Let the bar below represent your time. Draw a line dividing the bar according to the way you would divide your time between work time and free time. Label the work part "W" and the free time part "F".

7.

25. How disturbed do you feel when anyone laughs at you or blames you for something you have done wrong? (70)

1. _____ Deeply disturbed _____
2. _____ Fairly disturbed _____
3. _____ Not disturbed _____

26. Would you say that most people are more inclined to help others or more inclined to look out for themselves? (71)

1. _____ To help others _____
2. _____ To look out for themselves _____

27. If you don't watch yourself, people will take advantage of you. (72)

1. _____ Agree _____
2. _____ Disagree _____

28. Below are sixteen 7 - point scales each referring to a word pair. Use the scales to describe what outdoor recreation means to you.

As before, the scale points indicate the following:

1.= extremely 5.= slightly
2.= quite 6.= quite
3.= slightly 7.= extremely
4.= neutral or unrelated

WORD PAIRS
OUTDOOR RECREATION IS:

8.

29. No one is going to care much what happens to you, when (13
you get right down to it.

1. Agree _____
2. Disagree _____

30. Criticism or scolding hurts me terribly. (14

1. Agree _____
2. Disagree _____

31. Below are seven statements which describe different positions (15
society could take regarding a person's free time. First,
read all statements and then indicate by a check mark the one
statement with which you agree most.

1. Society should prohibit certain free time activities
and only allow certain others. _____
2. Society should prohibit certain free time activi-
ties. _____
3. Society should encourage certain free time activi-
ties, and discourage certain others. _____
4. Society should discourage certain free time
activities. _____
5. Society should encourage certain free time
activities. _____
6. Society should make available information about
free time activities but not actively encourage or
discourage what a person does in his free time. _____
7. What a person does in his free time is none of
society's concern. _____

32. Some people say that most people can be trusted. Others (16
say you can't be too careful in your dealings with people.
How do you feel about it?

1. Most people can be trusted _____
2. you can't be too careful. _____

33. How sensitive are you to criticism? (17

1. Extremely sensitive _____
2. Quite sensitive _____
3. Somewhat sensitive _____
4. Not sensitive _____

34. Check the statement below which best describes you: (18

1. my leisure time is always filled with thousands
of leisure time activities. _____
2. I usually have no trouble finding things to do

during my leisure time.

- 3. I sometimes do not know what to do in my leisure time.
- 4. I usually do not know what to do in my leisure time.
- 5. I sometimes feel quite bored during my leisure time.
- 6. I usually feel quite bored during my leisure time.
- 7. I always feel quite bored during my leisure time.

35. Human nature is really cooperative.

(19)

1. _____ Agree _____
2. _____ Disagree _____

36. I get a lot of fun out of life.

(20)

1. Agree
2. Disagree

37. Below are nine paragraphs each describing a particular kind of free time activity. Rank each one from 1 to 4 on the basis of how much each one means to you.

1. very important, means a lot to me.
2. important
3. slightly important.
4. indifferent, means nothing.

FREE TIME ACTIVITIES

- a- This activity gives you a chance to organize and arrange things. It demands precision and neatness. It requires a sense of planning, order and forethought. _____ (21)
- b- This activity allows you to do as you please regardless of rules or conventions. It provides for adventure, change and independence, involving a minimum of rules. _____ (22)
- c- This activity provides for the enjoyment of aesthetic feelings and of sensuous impressions. It may involve the enjoyment of one or more of the arts, and indulging in sensory pleasures and feelings. _____ (23)
- d- This activity involves reflection, thinking, analyzing and asking questions. It involves seeking scientific and philosophic truth and an understanding of life. _____ (24)

10.

e- This activity enables you to tackle a difficult (25
task and to achieve high standards. It offers
recognition for your accomplishments. It involves
determination and the will to succeed. _____

f- This activity involves being with a friend, or (26
small group of close friends, who can help with
problems; give you support and understand your dif-
ficulties. _____

g- This activity gives you a chance to be with others (27
and meet new people. It provides the opportunity for
co-operation with others and engaging with them in
common activities. _____

h- This activity gives you an opportunity to help others (28
who are in need and to protect and support them. It
may involve being with children or taking care of
animals. _____

i- This activity gives you a chance to be "on the go." (29
It relieves the feeling of listlessness and provides
for action. It keeps your mind off things because it
requires your full attention. _____

38. In general, how would you feel most of the time - in good (30
spirits or in low spirits?

1 _____ Very good spirits. _____

2 _____ Fairly good spirits. _____

3 _____ Neither good nor low spirits _____

4 _____ Fairly low spirits _____

5 _____ Very low spirits _____

39. Do you often find yourself daydreaming about the type (31
of person you expect to be in the future?

1 _____ Very often _____

2 _____ Sometimes _____

3 _____ Rarely or never _____

40. On the whole, I think I am quite a happy person. (32

1. _____ Agree _____

2. _____ Disagree _____

41. Below are sixteen 7-point scales each referring to a word pair .
Use the scales, as before, to describe what leisure means to you.

11.

WORD PAIRS

LEISURE IS:

refreshing	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	tiring	(43x)
tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	relaxed	(47)
disciplined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	free	(45)
happy	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sad	(46x)
dishonest	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	honest	(35)
good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	sad	(42x)
unsatisfying	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	satisfying	(41)
inactive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	active	(40)
mysterious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	understandable	(48)
meaningful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	meaningless	(39x)
boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	interesting	(33)
unnecessary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	necessary	(37)
pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	unpleasant	(44x)
sociable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	solitary	(34x)
undesirable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	desirable	(36)
powerless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	powerful	(38)

42. I daydream a good deal of the time (49)

1. _____ Agree _____
 2. _____ Disagree _____

43. On the whole, how happy would you say you are? (50)

1. _____ Very happy _____
 2. _____ Fairly happy _____
 3. _____ Not very happy _____
 4. _____ Very Unhappy _____

44. Do you make a distinction between free time and leisure? (51)
 _____ Yes: 2 _____ No 145. If "Yes," indicate on the scale below how much of your free time you consider leisure. (52,53)

None 10% 20% 30% 40% 50% 60% 70% 80% 90% All

46. How often do you feel downcast and dejected? (54)

1. _____ Very often _____
 2. _____ Fairly often _____
 3. _____ Occasionally _____
 4. _____ Rarely _____
 5. _____ Never _____

12.

13.

53. Most of the time, I would rather sit and daydream than to do anything else. (15)

1. Agree
2. Disagree

54. Which do you get most out of - is usually the most pleasant, rewarding, satisfying. (MARK ONLY ONE SPACE) (16)

Being at home -

- alone
- with brothers or sisters
- with family
- with friend or friends

Being away from home - but not outside town

(17)

- alone
- with brothers or sisters
- with family
- with friend or friends

Being engaged in outdoor recreation -

(18)

- alone
- with brothers or sisters
- with family
- with friend or friends.

55. Which sex are you..... 1 male (19)
..... 2 female

56. Age, last birthday..... (20,21)

57. What is your father's occupation (24,25)

58. What is your mother's occupation (26,27)
(Be as specific as possible)

61. How far did your parents go in school

Mark only the last school attended.

FATHER

MOTHER

1. None.....
2. Elementary School...
3. Some high school....
4. finished high school
5. College or university
6. Institute of technology
7. Teachers' College...
8. Agricultural College
9. Business College....

1. None.....
2. Elementary school
3. Some high school.
4. finished high school
5. College or university (28,29)
6. Institute of technology (30,31)
7. Teachers' College.....
8. Nursing school....
9. Commercial College.

14.

10. Other..... _____ 10. Other..... _____

11. Don't know..... _____ 11. Don't Know..... _____

62. Are you a member of any teams, clubs, or organizations in school.

1. Yes, I am an officer in at least one. _____ (32)
2. Yes, I am very active in at least one, but not an officer. _____
3. yes, I am a member of at least one, but not very active. _____
4. No, I am not a member of any. _____

63. Are you a member of any teams, clubs, organizations outside the school.

1. Yes, I am an officer in at least one. _____ (33)
2. Yes, I am very active in at least one, but not an officer _____
3. Yes, I am a member of at least one, but not very active. _____
4. No, I am not a member of any. _____

64. How many of your friends are: (34)

In your class in school	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
-------------------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

Not in your class but in your school	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
--------------------------------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

In other high schools	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
-----------------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

In a university or post secondary school	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
------------------------------------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

Working full time	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
-------------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

Unemployed	None	1	2	3	4	5	6 or more
------------	------	---	---	---	---	---	-----------

65. Suppose you had an extra hour at school, what would you most like to do with it. (mark only one space)

Take some extra subjects of your own choosing.....	_____ (40)
----------------------------------------------------	------------

Use it for athletics.....	_____
---------------------------	-------

Spend it in a club, organization, or other shcool activity.....	_____
-----------------------------------------------------------------	-------

Use it as a study period.....	_____
-------------------------------	-------

66. What is your home address: ONLY TO THE NEAREST BLOCK

Town	_____	(41,
------	-------	------

Avenue	_____	(42,43
--------	-------	--------

Street	_____	44
--------	-------	----

How long have you lived there	_____	(45,46
-------------------------------	-------	--------

		47
--	--	----

		(48,49
--	--	--------

15.

67. When you leave school, what do you plan to do:

Work (50)

Attend university or N.A.I.T.

Other, please specify

No decision yet.....

If work, what occupation will it be (51,52)

If university or N.A.I.T. , what majors or courses will you take. (53,54)

68. How often would you say your parents praised you for your accomplishments. (55,56)

FATHER

MOTHER

____ Very Often _____

____ Quite Often _____

____ Not too Often _____

____ Almost Never _____

69. What is your position in the family? (57)

First - born and/or only Fourth - born _____

Second - born Fifth - born _____

Third - born Sixth or later- born _____

70. Indicate your family size:

I come from a family of... one child (that is, I am an only child)

____ two children (58)

____ three children

____ four children

____ five children

____ six children or more.

71 Which of the following do you live in:

Apartment or Multiple Dwelling 1. (59)

Row House 2.

Duplex 3.

Semidetached 4.

Single House 5.

Mobile Home 6.

Other, Please specify. _____

72. Is your home rented 1. (60)
or does your family own it 2.

16.

73. Do you have the personal use of a car during your (61
free time. no. _____ 1.
yes. _____ 2.

If yes, what do you use it for most often. _____

74. What country is your father from originally (62 _____

THAT'S ALL. THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR HELP.

SEI (64,65,66

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